The World.

Historical Actual.

By Frank Gilbert, A.M.

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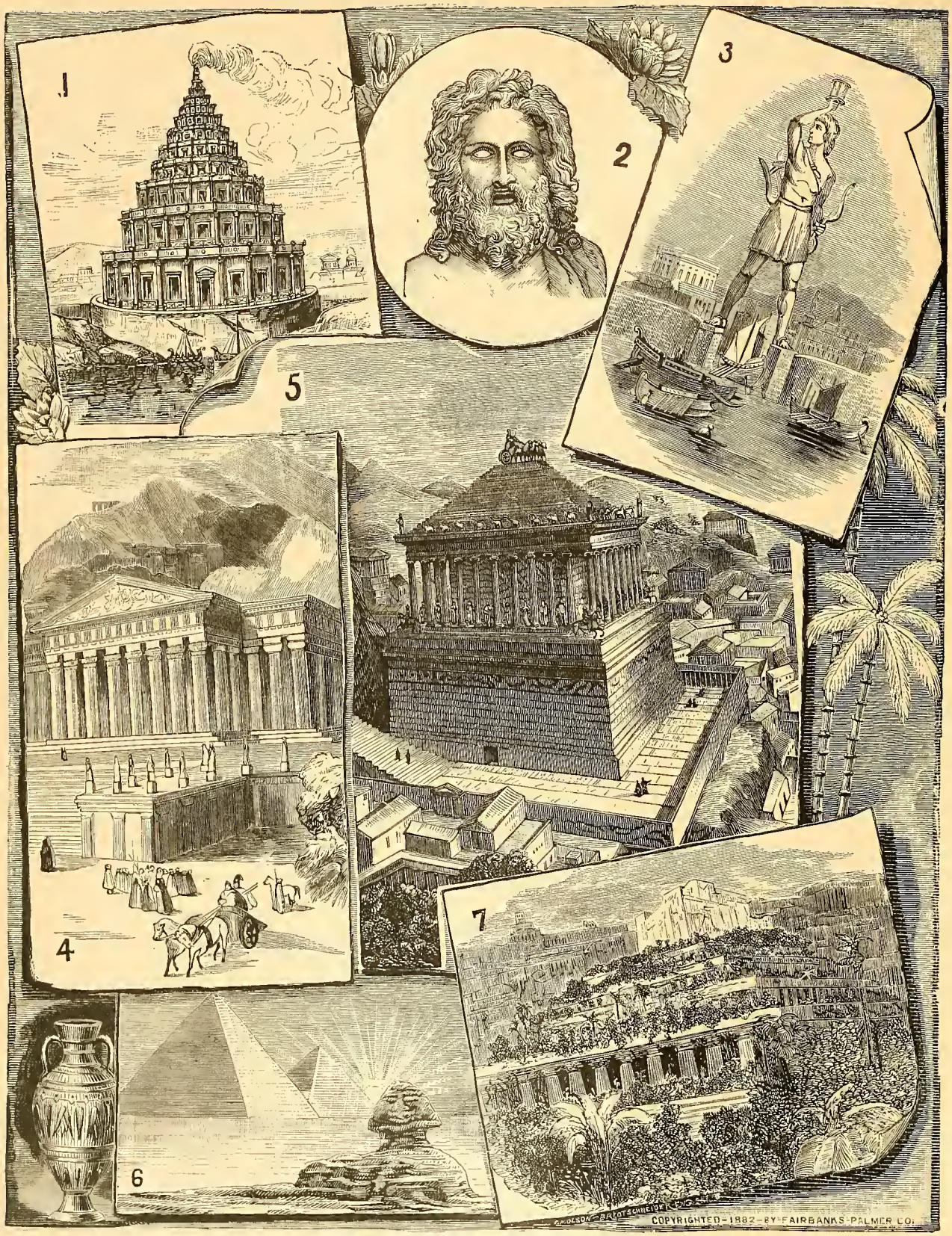

THE SEVEN WONDERS OF THE WORLD.

1—Lighthouse on the Island of Pharos, Alexandria.
2—Statue of the Olympian Jupiter.
3—The Colossus at Rhodes.
4—The Temple of Diana at Ephesus.
5—The Mausoleum of Artemisia.
6—The Pyramids of Egypt.
7—The Walls and Hanging Gardens of Babylon.

THE WORLD:

HISTORICAL AND ACTUAL.

WHAT HAS BEEN AND WHAT IS.

OUR GLOBE IN ITS RELATIONS TO OTHER WORLDS, AND BEFORE MAN.

ANCIENT NATIONS IN THE ORDER OF THEIR ANTIQUITY.

THE MIDDLE AGES AND THEIR DARKNESS.

THE PRESENT PEOPLES OF THE EARTH IN THEIR GRADUAL EMERGENCE FROM BARBARISM INTO THE SUNLIGHT OF TO-DAY, AND AS THEY NOW STAND UPON THE PLANE OF CIVILIZATION.

TOGETHER WITH

USEFUL AND INSTRUCTIVE CHARTS, REFERENCE TABLES OF HISTORY, FINANCE, COMMERCE AND LITERATURE FROM B. C. 1500, TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Numerous Elegant Illustrations.

By FRANK GILBERT, A. M.

Late Assistant Treasurer U. S. at Chicago and Associate Editor of Chicago Journal;
Author of The Manual of American Literature.

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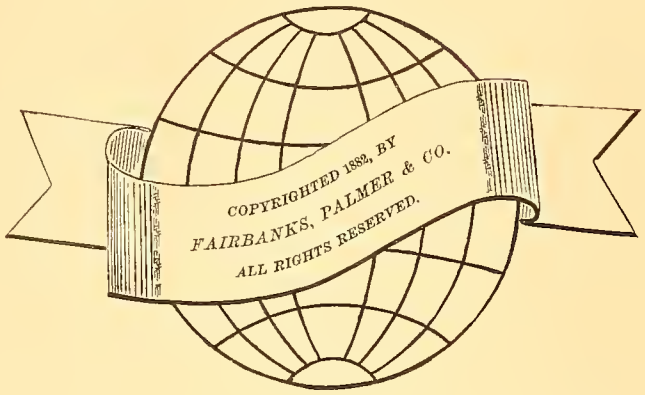

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PREFACE.

THIS age is at once busy and inquiring. The people have more thirst for knowledge than time to devote to its acquisition, and of that little, much must be given to the current topics of the day as presented in the newspapers. The aim of THE WORLD is to meet the demand of this large class of the public for a volume which shall be encyclopedic in its range of information, yet so written as to be an unbroken account of man's progress in the past and condition in the present.

Each chapter forms an essay substantially complete in itself upon the subject announced in the heading. It is also a link in a chain of intelligence which encircles the globe and binds in a grand unity all the known ages. This method, adopted with grave apprehension of its feasibility, was found to be natural and easy to follow.

Preliminary to the history and introductory to the body of the work are presented such scientific facts in regard to the heavens above and the earth beneath as were deemed necessary to an intelligent understanding of man's environment. No attempt has been made to give instruction in the sciences, beyond the accomplishment of this object. Modern scholarship has disclosed in dim outline the illimitable field of prehistoric humanity, and a faint glimpse of that vast field is also afforded for the same introductory purpose.

It will be observed that each country or people is presented in the order of its emergence from obscurity and followed in its development until the present time. Into the ocean of the Actual debouch the numberless streams of the Historical, from the Nile of Egypt to the Amazon of America. Care has been taken to give to each the relative prominence to which it is entitled by its real weight and influence in the scale of civilization. Separate facts, too, have been treated upon the same principle. There is wide latitude for honest and intelligent difference of opinion as to the importance of almost every event, and no two estimates would agree entirely upon details.

Every subject which seemed to require pictorial representation to render it more intelligible and interesting has been illustrated. These illustrations are believed to add very materially to the intrinsic value, as well as the attractiveness of the volume. There are many subjects which cannot be fully presented unless "the art preservative of art," as printing has been called, is supplemented and rounded out by the engraver's art.

Of course in a volume covering a field so vast, many things which are in themselves highly important must be passed over in silence or mentioned only briefly; but the endeavor has been to avoid the omission of anything necessary to the general plan of the book, as set forth upon the title-page.

In the verification of facts the author of a work which is telescopic rather than microscopic, cannot make original research, and often there is a wide divergence in the statements made by standard authorities. In this book no statement will be found for which good authority could not be adduced, and in many cases (more especially in the statistical part)

great effort has been made to determine the relative weight of testimony and conform thereto.

In the preparation of this volume it has been assumed that the reader is far more interested in American history than in foreign history; in modern times than in antiquity. If the space devoted to art, for instance, in the United States is small, as compared with that given to the art of some other countries, while American industry is given especial prominence, the reason is that, much as might be said in praise of art in the United States, it is undeniable that the typical American is an artisan rather than an artist, and his hands are more skillful in the use of tools and implements of industry than the brush and chisel of art.

The earliest nation of which we know anything, Egypt, seems to have been mainly anxious to preserve the body after death; the greatest of all nations in actual attainments, England, has developed what might be called factory mechanism,—machinery which enabled the English to convert raw material into merchandise on terms to defy the competition of the world. America has wrought much in the English line, but the distinctive peculiarity of the United States is care for the numberless comforts and conveniences of life. In a word, it seems to be the mission of American industry and ingenuity to lighten the labors and enhance the happiness of the toiling masses of mankind. The truth of these observations is obvious, and it only remains to say that throughout the volume the aim has been to bring out in due prominence the distinctive characteristics of each people or period.

It will be observed that the reading matter has been re-inforced by copious statistics, selected and arranged with reference to the general scope of THE WORLD, constituting a compend of leading facts, relating to the past and to the present nations of our globe. These tables, based on the latest attainable information, aim to make the book available for the purpose of reference, especially in connection with the index, and will meet, it is hoped, a want now felt by speakers, writers, professional and business men and others, whose limited time will not permit their consulting exhaustive treatises, but who demand that the salient points shall be so arranged as to be easily found just when desired. By the joint aid of the table of reference and the index, it is entirely feasible to almost instantaneously secure the information desired. The table of contents is designed to be a complete and ready guide to the reader in selecting topics about which to read, for the book is equally adapted to continuous and occasional reading.

The author is under great obligations to "Gaskell's Compendium of Forms," and such eminent statisticians as Mulhall, Nichol and Walker, for tabular matter, also to L. T. Palmer; to Prof. W. P. Jones for assistance in the chapters on China, and to the Hon. C. E. Jones, of Melbourne, for aid in the preparation of the chapter on Australasia. In the body of the book due credit is given to the numerous authors from whom quotations are made.

It only remains to add that one more needed labor will have been performed if this book shall satisfactorily fill the niche in the library and the place in the family-circle for which it was designed.

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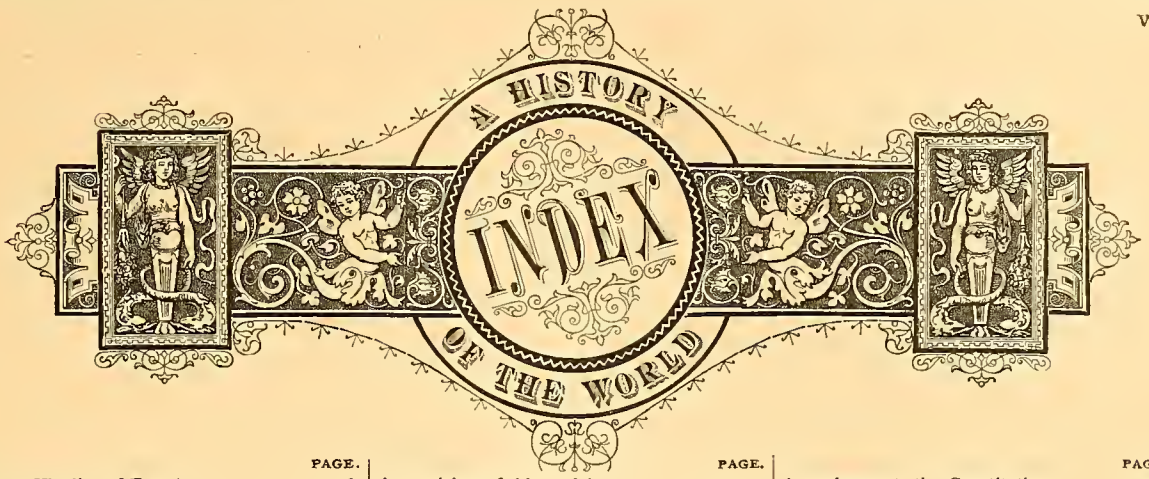

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BEFORE HISTORY.

SCIENCE has dispelled the old delusion that all things were created for man, that he is the diamond of creation, all else being mere setting; but it is none the less true, that no conception can be formed of the universe, except in its human relations. It is equally true, that in order to follow the path of human progress intelligently, it is necessary to first glance at the vast field of knowledge, outside the domain of history, antedating all human records. Such a preliminary survey will serve as a fitting introduction to the specific inquiry in hand, and, indeed, forms an integral part of it. The great Von Humboldt may be said to have finished the demonstration of the fact that "the universe is governed by law," by which it is meant that all things proceed in an orderly and rational manner, as Great Britain or the United States may be said to be governed by law. It is the part of science to discover and disclose those laws, in their manifold relations. It is but yesterday that man began to unravel the mysteries of creation. For thousands of years the eye of genius was dimmed by the mists of absurd conceits and immemorial blunders.

Albeit the ancient folly that the universe was made for man has been cast into the limbo of exploded heresies, it is undeniable that the preparations made for man were elaborate beyond all preconception. Whether one glance over the celestial field, and pause to ponder upon the wonders of the heavens, or delve deep into the earth to ascertain the marvels of geology and paleontology, one is alike impressed with the magnitude and minuteness of the preparations which rendered this earth habitable by human beings. From the remotest star in the Milky Way to the tiniest spear of grass, all forms a part, necessary and correlative, in the mighty system of being over which man sways the scepter of superior intelligence.

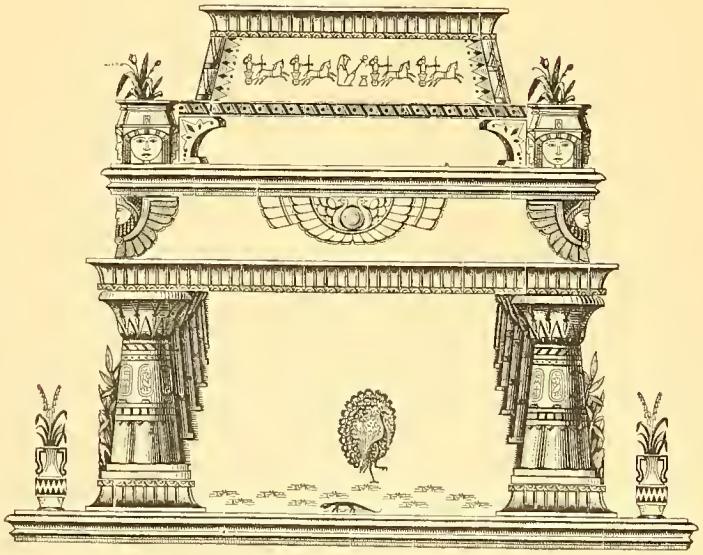
The antiquity of the human race is a problem thus far defiant of solution. Biblical chronology has been somewhat variously interpreted by different scholars, but science and scripture agree that man was the last and crowning result of creation. Vast epochs intervened between the beginning and the end of the journey which began in the dim chambers of mere conceptive potency, and ended in humanity. It would be foreign to the object of this volume to discuss the polemics of science. The field of positive and definite information is far more inviting and profitable. It is wiser to calmly glean and garner the wheat of knowledge than to frantically thresh the tares of controversy. It may be, and doubtless is, a grander flight of genius to skim along the azure of philosophic thought than to wearily plod along the road of events; but as a preparation for the intelligent perusal of history, a few general facts of nature are vastly more helpful than the sublimest disquisitions upon the abstract and the abstruse.

The development of existing cosmos out of primordial chaos, produced continents, oceans and mountains in the place of a vast globe of liquid fire. The great mass of the earth is still in a fluid and fiery

state, covered by a comparatively thin crust of cold and solid substance. In tracing the necessary course of this change from a molten to a solid condition, a scientific writer of our day remarks: "As the interior became hard and concrete by cooling, furrows, corrugations and depressions in the external crust of the globe would occur, causing great inequalities in its surface." Volcanic eruptions are simply the escape of the central fire, and liability to such eruptions would be proportionate to the thinness of the crust. Once this globe must have been little else than one universal volcano, belching fire and lava at every point. In the earlier stages of creation, volcanic action played the chief part, even after its general subsidence.

As volcanoes were the great agencies of the geological dawn, so glaciers came in the cool of the evening. The transition from more than tropical heat, the world over, to universal winter is supposed to have been sudden, and no satisfactory hypothesis has yet been devised for its explanation. Agassiz says of this era of frost: "A vast mantle of ice and snow covered the plains, the valleys, and the seas. All the springs were dried up; the rivers ceased to flow. To the movements of a numerous and animated creation succeeded the silence of death." It was in the period immediately following the general thaw, or springtime of that supreme winter, that the present life of the earth was begun. Nature having, as it were, frozen out, and gotten rid of her experiments, zoological and botanical, was ready to create man and his vital environments.

In point of time, then, the great period of the world was before man, as well as before history.



THE CHILDREN OF THE SUN.

CHAPTER I.

THE PATERNITY OF THE SUN—CHIEF MEMBERS OF THE SOLAR FAMILY—PECULIARITIES OF THE SEVERAL PLANETS—THE PROPERTIES OF MATTER—DENSITY, VELOCITY AND DIAMETER OF PLANETS—THE MOON—SUN-SPOTS—PRECESSION AND MULTIPLE STARS—THE STAR OF BETHLEHEM AND ITS RE-APPEARANCE—THE MILKY WAY AND STAR-CLUSTERS—COMETS—GRAVITATION—TIME—NOTED ASTRONOMERS.

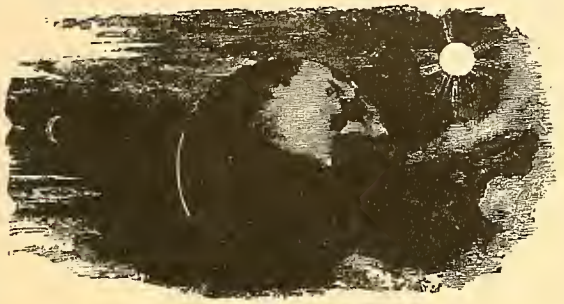
THOU hast set the solitary in families, was spoken of man, but it is quite as applicable to worlds. There are, it is true, wandering stars which seem defiant of the law of association, as there are human beings who shoot off on tangents of solitude, forming exceptions to the general rule of society. The rule itself is, however, none the less forcible.

In the opinion of some astronomers, there exists somewhere in the limitless and illimitable vastness of space a luminary which is the center and source of life, light and existence. But no eye has caught a glimpse of it, nor is there any likelihood of such discovery. The utmost stretch of astronomical intelligence goes to the ascertainment of suns which are, each in its sphere, the head of a planetary system or family. Every fixed star that shines in the firmament is the father of a family of worlds, and the same is true of countless others which lie beyond human ken, however assisted the eye may be by the telescope.

The central body, the light and life, of our system of worlds, is the Sun. The planets and satellites which belong to this system are absolutely dependent upon the father-sun for the necessaries of life, no less than for all the luxuries of planetary existence. They can never reach "majority," but ever remain "infants." Children are they of a parent whose patriarchal authority must be respected forever. Without the heat of the Sun, every planet would become little else than a vast iceberg. There are many members of this family too small for observation from an earthly stand-point, and many which can be discerned by the telescope can not be explored by it, and are hardly worth mention. The recognized and important children of the Sun are Neptune, Uranus, Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, Earth, Venus and Mercury, eight in all. Some of these have satellites of their own, or, as they might be designated, children. These grandchildren of the Sun, so far as discovered, are eighteen. The Moon is the satellite of Earth. Mars, Venus and Mercury have none. Saturn has eight moons or satellites, Jupiter four, Uranus four, and Neptune one. From observation by the naked eye, the Moon occupies a prominence out of all proportion to its real importance in the solar household. This planet of ours is somewhat below par in magnitude. It is, however, one of the more favored children of the Sun in point of relative position. Some of the planets are so far removed from the Sun as to suffer perpetual winter, while others endure a continuous furnace heat.

It would hardly be of interest to "go a-sailing all

among the little stars," but some members of the family deserve special attention, besides the Earth. Mercury, the smallest of the noteworthy planets, is the nearest to the Sun. "I am blinded by my own



The Earth.

light," says the Ormuzd of the Persian mythology, and Mercury might well say the same. It is supposed to have very high mountains. Its temperature is seven times hotter than our own. If its material were as liable to combustion as our own, it would have been consumed with fervid heat long ago. Its days are very unequal in length, and if inhabited at all, it must be by very peculiar people, veritable salamanders. "They must," observes a French author, "be as vivacious and mad as raving maniacs." Venus must have twice the heat of the Earth. Like Mercury, it has immense mountains, some of them at least twenty-five miles high. It is studded with islands, and has an atmosphere not very unlike our own. The inference or guess of the astronomers is that Venus is a very lovely world. Although destitute of moons, it has the benefit of reflections from Mercury and Earth.

Telescopic Views of Venus.

Telescopic View of Mars.

Mars is nearest to Earth, and presents close analogies to our planet, especially in atmospheric phenomena and polar cold. It is believed to have a very dense air. Continents and seas are distinguishable upon it. A fair idea of its topography may be formed from a study of the map of North America, with this transposition: that the continent of one stands for the water of the other. Science shows it to be a very old planet. The other planets, Neptune, Saturn, Uranus, and Jupiter, are so very far off that their peculiarities are less known than those of the other members of the family of the Sun. The rings of Saturn, however, deserve mention. The most plausible theory is that they consist of an accumulation of satellites, completely filling its orbit. These satellites, however, defy anything like definite observation.

Telescopic View of Jupiter.

In this connection, it may be well to give some facts general to the solar system. The properties of matter are fourteen, viz.: Divisibility, indestructibility, impenetrability (or the occupancy of space), variability (*i. e.*, gas, liquid or solid), inertia, motion, force, gravitation, magnetism, electricity, heat, reflection, refraction, polarizing and absorbing, cohesion and repulsion. Taking water as a standard of unity, the density of the planets is as follows: Neptune, 1.25; Uranus, .97; Saturn, .76; Jupiter, 1.32; Mars, 5.12; Earth, 5.44; Venus, 5.11; Mercury, 6.71. The velocity of planets, stated in miles per second, is as follows: Neptune, 3.491; Uranus, 4.369; Saturn, 6.196; Jupiter, 8.389; Mars, 15.50; Earth, 19.13; Venus, 22.50; Mercury, 30.76. The diameters of the planets, expressed in miles, are as follows: Neptune, 32,243; Uranus, 34,704; Saturn, 71,936; Jupiter, 88,316; Mars, 3,900; Earth, 7,925.3; Venus, 7,566; Mercury, 2,960; the Sun, 851,736.

Telescopic View of Saturn.

The Moon is too prominent a factor in the celestial problem which astronomy has been solving for thousands of years (but can never fully solve), to be overlooked. It is insignificant from the standpoint of the universe, or even from that of the Sun; but the Earth has special interest in it. Everybody has heard of "the man in the Moon,"

PLATE I.

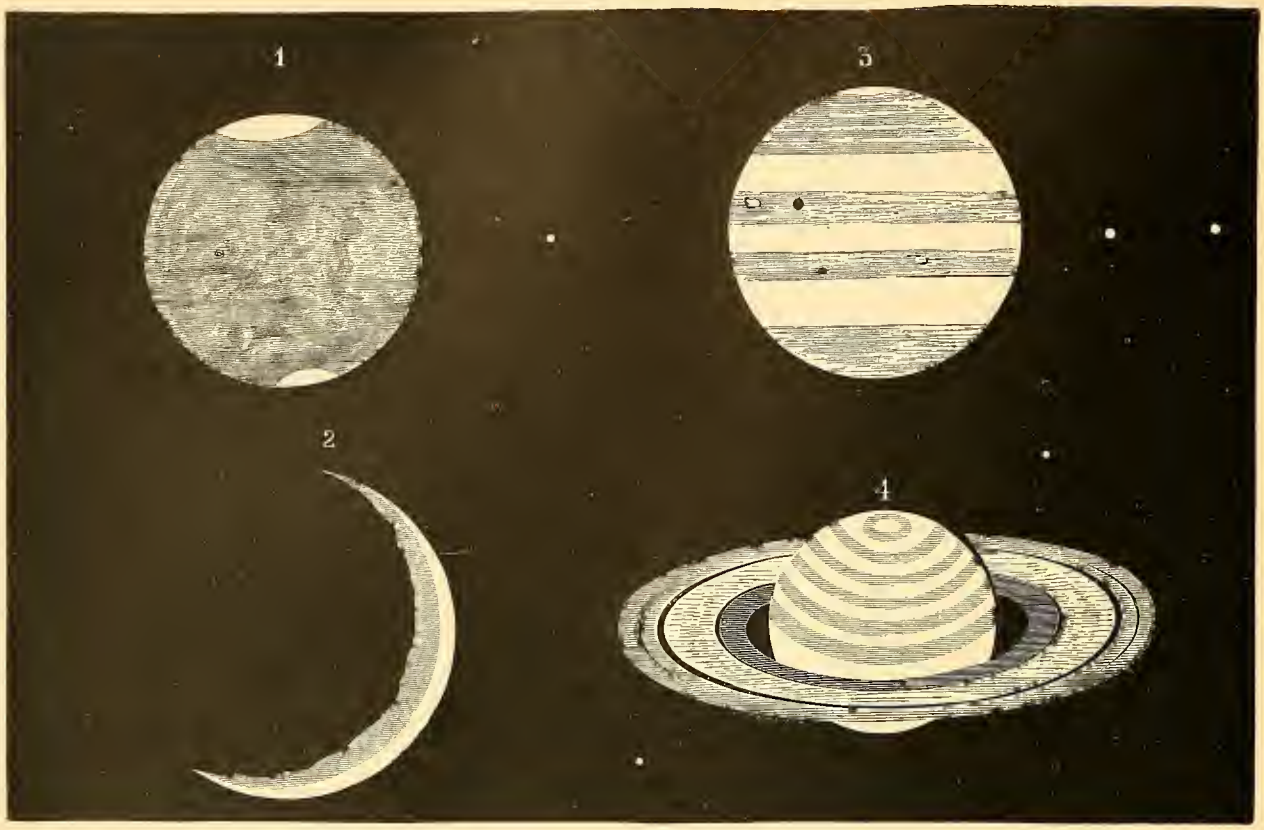


PLATE II.

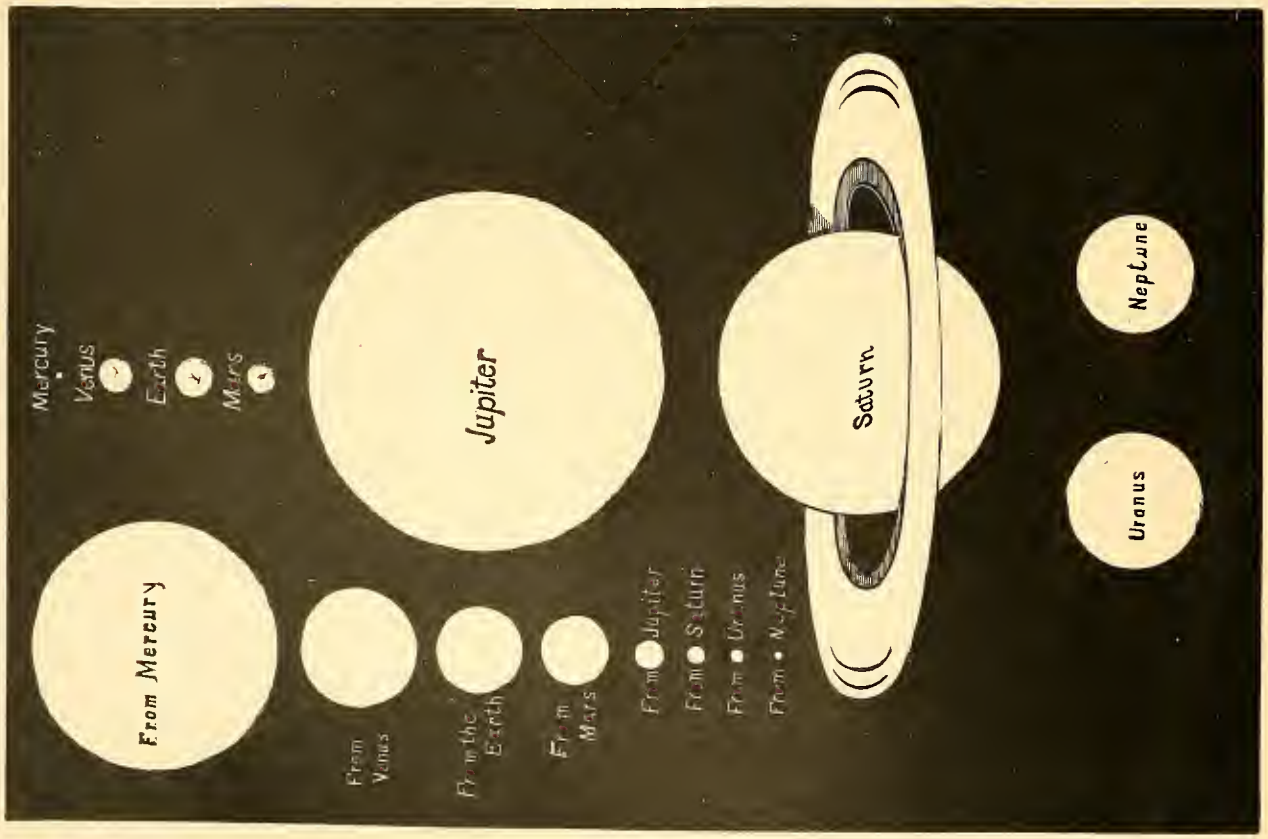


PLATE III.

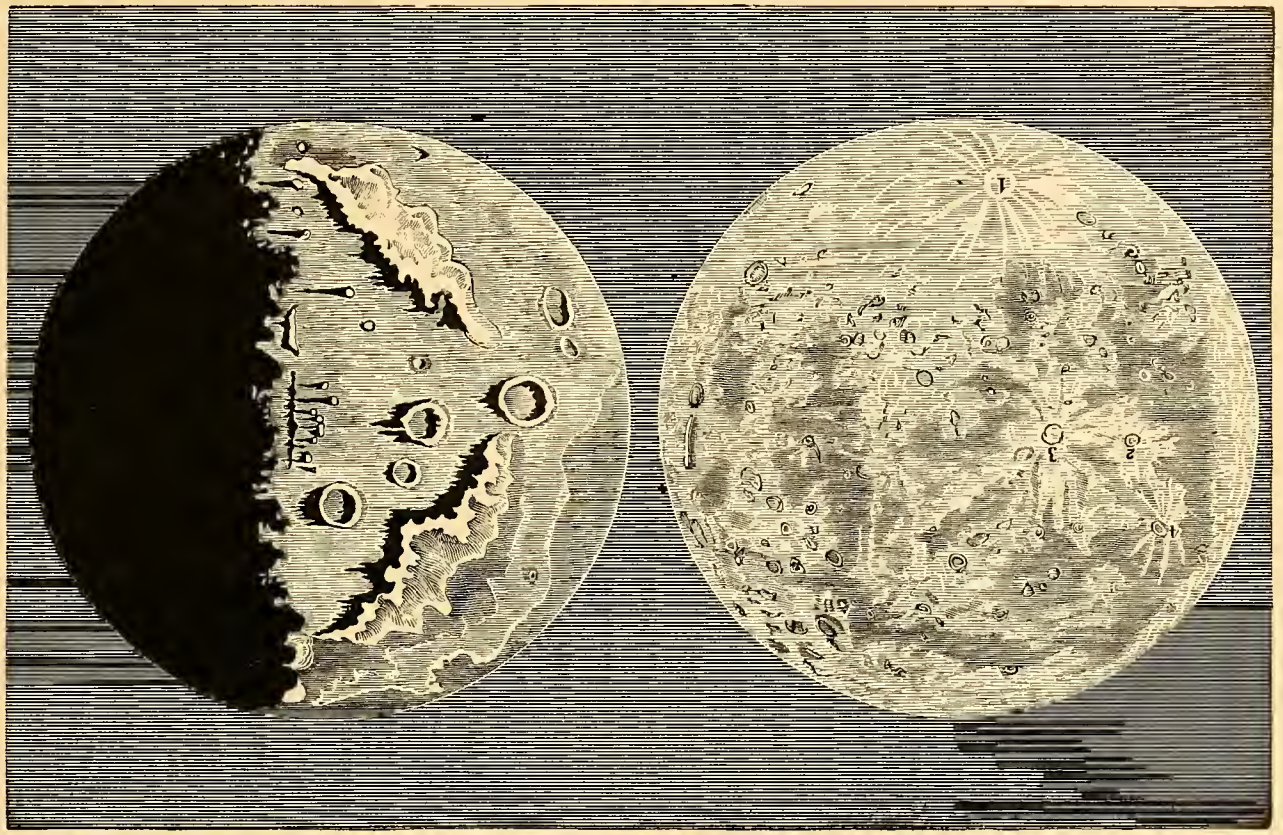


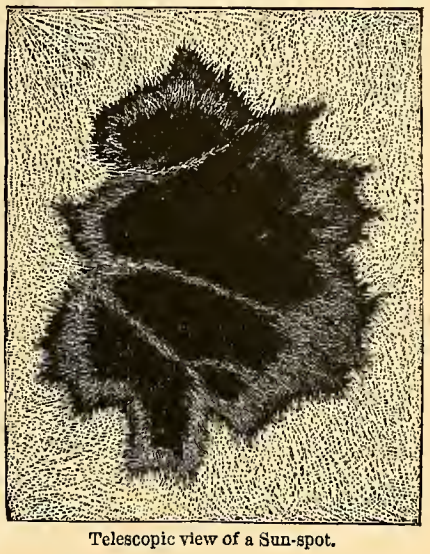
PLATE IV.

but the wisdom of the telescope pronounces him a myth, or, if he ever existed, it was ages ago. The Moon is set down as a vast charnel-house. It has neither air, water, nor life of any kind. Its awful crags are absolutely desolate. The supposition is that it is an exhausted, burnt-out, and used-up world. If there is life at all, it must be utterly unlike any known to man. It is the Sahara of the skies. Distant from the earth only 240,000 miles, it is attracted and largely controlled by this planet. The term satellite is appropriate. It is not exhaustive, however, for it, too, is a planet of the Sun. Although distant 92,000,000 miles from the head of the family, it is more influenced by it than by the Earth. The action of the Moon upon this planet is chiefly in the ebb and flow of the tides.

The Crater Tycho, as seen by Telescope.

Its huge craters are, some of them, one hundred miles in diameter, and the whole surface of the moon appears to be honeycombed by extinct volcanoes. The Moon has its phases from full to crescent. They are the different portions of her illuminated surface, which she presents to the Earth in revolving around it. When the dark side is turned toward us the Moon is said to be new; then it is half-full and horned, and by these phases the revolutions of the Moon are ascertained. The time between full moons is 29½ days; a synodical month, or lunation.

Sun-spots were first carefully studied by Fabricius in the seventeenth century. They have been observed very closely ever since. Those of to-day are not those of two centuries ago. Perpetual change goes on. They are the result of some kind of tremendous storms or cyclones. That vast furnace seems to be subject to inconceivable perturbations, by the side of which Vesuvius in action would be cold calm. The flames are supposed to rise to a height of 100,000 miles sometimes. The rents and chasms in that ocean of flame are measureless in width and depth. Astronomers have measured one chasm or spot that was found to be large enough to hold one hundred Earths. A still larger spot was measured in 1839, and found to be 186,000 miles in diameter. The speed or movement perceived in spots exceeded that of the most violent hurricanes, three to one.



Telescopic view of a Sun-spot.

The term *precession* applies to the gradual falling back of the equinoctial points from east to west. In his apparent annual revolution around the Earth, the Sun does not cross the equinoctial

The Twelve Signs of the Zodiac.

at the same points one year that it does the next, but drops to the west about 50 seconds a year. The

entire precession of the equinoxes requires a period of nearly 26,000 years. Consequently the apparent positions of the stars constantly undergo change, and the Pole-star, even, is not the same in all eons.

For the convenience of astronomical study, the heavens are divided into distinct spaces, represented on the map by the figures of animals or other objects. These spaces, with the stars they contain, are called *constellations*. They are distinguished as northern, zodiacal, and southern, according to their positions in respect to the ecliptic. There are twenty-five prominent constellations in the north, twelve in the zodiac and eighteen in the south.

Multiple stars are those which seem to the ordinary observer to be single, but which, when viewed through a telescope, appear to be two or more stars. If there are only two, they are called double, or binary stars. Variable stars exhibit periodical changes of brightness. Temporary stars are the luminaries which make their appearance suddenly in the heavens, often very brilliant, but after a while fading away, or nearly so. If they do not disappear entirely they are called *new* stars. Astronomers can arrive at no satisfactory solution of this mystery. Some stars known to the ancients are not to be found. They are called *lost* stars.

One peculiarity of astronomy is that it can foretell events in its own line, and also discover lost information. For instance, it is known that in the year 4 B. C. a brilliant star appeared, which astronomers call the "Star of Bethlehem," and of this star the learned Professor Gounnier remarks: "In 1887 the 'Star of Bethlehem' will be once more seen in 'Caseopia's Chair,' and will be accompanied by a total eclipse of the sun and moon. The star only makes its appearance every 315 years. It will appear and illuminate the heavens, and exceed in brilliancy even Jupiter when in opposition to the sun, and therefore nearer to the sun and brightest. The marvelous brilliancy of the 'Star of Bethlehem,' in 1887, will surpass any of its previous visitations. It will be seen even by noonday, shining with a quick, flashing light, the entire year, after which it will gradually decrease in brightness, and finally disappear, not to return to our heavens until 2202, or 315 years after 1887. This star first attracted the attention of modern astronomers in the year 1575. It was then called a new star. It was no new star, however, for this was the star which shone so brightly 4 B. C., and was the star that illuminated the heavens at the nativity of Christ."

Beside the planets which belong to our system, and the suns of other systems, which are, for the most part, the countless stars of our firmament, is the Milky Way. That is too sharply defined in its individuality, as seen by the naked eye, to be passed over, although, in point of fact, no part of the solar system. It comprises luminous matter; aggregations of stars. As one writer expresses it, "The Milky Way presents patches of diffuse, luminous matter, and many millions of stars, some isolated, others formed in groups, and forming, in its totality, a kind of zone or ring, the diameter of which would be about six times greater than its thickness, and of which our sun would form a part. It has been estimated that light would not traverse the distance between those nebulæ and the earth in less than sixty millions of years, while a cannon-ball would require 37,000 millions of years to traverse the same distance; yet the limits of the universe would still be untouched. As Buchner and others contend, it is highly probable that the universe, like the earth, is a sphere, with no "jumping-off place" anywhere. *Star-clusters* are near of kin to the Milky Way. Some of these groups have been ascertained to contain no less than 25,000 stars, such as the Pleiades, the Hyades, and the group known as Berenice's Hair. These globular clusters, or galaxies, are supposed to be held together by their motions and mutual attractions. *Nebulæ* are star-clusters, only so far off as to be vague even to the telescopic eye. The separate stars cannot be distinguished. They form the extreme verge of celestial discovery, and serve to suggest the infinite spaces beyond the reach of scientific inquiry.

Nebulæ viewed through the Telescope.

By all ignorant people, great consequence is attached to comets. As a matter of fact, they are trifles, and literally lighter than air. They are small, irregular nebulæ, which travel in space, and which, coming within the sphere of the sun's attraction, approach that body at an ever-increasing velocity, revolving around it, at a varying distance from its surface, and again moving off toward other

PLATE V.

regions of the sky, losing their velocity as they recede. They vary in their nature and movements, and really possess very little actual significance in the solar economy. They are to the solar system about what a light morning fog is to a day in June. Comets are infrequent, but shooting stars are very common, and deserve brief consideration. They are sometimes called *bolides*, aerolites, or meteorites. This branch of science has not reached basis of demonstration in its details. Enough is known to warrant the positive assertion that these seeming eccentricities are not freaks of nature, but results of established laws of the universe, especially that great fundamental law, gravitation. This law of gravitation is so very fundamental, in fact, as almost to deserve the appellation of "First Cause," or, as a German would put it, "the cause of the cause of the thing caused." One extract from Rambosson's lectures on this subject will serve as a fitting bridge between this subject and its immediate successor. He says:

Comet of 1819.

"It has been found that the earth revolves upon its rapid course like a vast cannon-ball amidst moving clusters of rings of bullets, circulating everlastingly in fixed ellipses. These rings are regular rivers, without beginning or end, which pour along their beds in celestial projectiles, intersecting at several points the invisible route which the earth follows around the sun. The earth, in passing through them, is struck by thousands of the small planets, which drop to its surface, and its attractive force drags a great number more of them into its train, causing them to revolve around it for some time, like so many imperceptible moons, until they, too, fall to its surface in the shape of shooting stars."

Whenever and wherever there has been anything approaching a correct computation of time, astronomy has been the base of reckoning. The Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, not only, but the Hindoos and Chinese, all adopted the same general plan. The moon is the convenient stand-point for computing months, as the sun is for computing days and years. The present system, sometimes called the new style, was introduced by Pope Gregory XIII. in 1582, as the result of careful study and observation, and so accurate is it that the variation between the computed and the actual year is not over one day in 5,000 years. The Gregorean calendar was at once adopted in Catholic countries, but it gained general credence in Protestant countries only about the beginning of the eighteenth century. Russia has not even yet adopted it. The Russians, or the members of the Greek Church, reckon from the birth of Christ, old style. The Mohammedans reckon from the flight of their prophet from Medina 1,300 years ago; the Hebrews from the creation, 5641.

Several great astronomers deserve mention for the services they rendered mankind in making known the wonders of the heavens. First of all ranks Copernicus, born in 1473, a German, who verified the ancient theory that the sun was the center of the solar system. After his day this was a demonstrated fact, and not a mere hypothesis. Galileo, born 1564, made further discoveries in that same line, proving beyond a doubt that the world moves around the sun, not the sun around the earth. For that "heresy" he was tried, and would have suffered martyrdom had he not recanted, his recantation being no detriment to science. Galileo was an Italian. Kepler, a German, born in 1571, made great progress in this science, and with good reason exclaimed: "I think thy thoughts after thee, O God." He discovered several of the fundamental laws of the solar system. With Sir Isaac Newton, born in 1642, England came to occupy the front rank in astronomical discoveries, for he discerned that greatest of all laws, the law of gravitation, or the reason why the planets revolve, as well as why the apple falls to the ground when shaken from the stem. His supreme law is that matter attracts other matter in proportion to its mass and distance. Sir William Herschel and his son, belonging in their life work to England and the present century, deserve exalted rank, as do Mitchell, father and daughter, in this country. Richard A. Proctor has done and is doing very much to bring astronomical knowledge within the easy reach of the general public.

TABLE SHOWING THE RELATIONS OF POSITION IN THE ORBIT.

Name	Place of Perihelion.	Annual Variation.	Place of North Node.	Annual Variation.	Inclination of Orbit.	Annual Variation.
Mercury	♊ 15° 30′ 48″	+ 5.84″	☋ 16° 50′ 39″	— 7.82″	7° 0′ 18″	+ 0.181″
Venus	♌ 9° 42′ 32″	− 2.68″	♊ 15° 33′ 6″	— 18.71″	3° 23′ 32″	+ 0.045″
Earth	♋ 10° 46′ 38″	+ 11.81″				
Mars	♒ 3° 45′ 28″	+ 15.82″	☋ 18° 33′ 16″	— 23.29″	1° 51′ 6″	— 0.003″
Jupiter	♈ 12° 18′ 47″	+ 6.65″	♋ 9° 21′ 27″	— 15.81″	1° 18′ 35″	— 0.226″
Saturn	♋ 0° 35′ 23″	+ 19.37″	♋ 22° 34′ 37″	— 19.42″	2° 29′ 24″	— 0.155″
Uranus	♍ 18° 36′ 8″	+ 2. 4″	♊ 13° 17′ 9″	— 36. 0″	0° 46′ 30″	+ 0.031″
Neptune	♉ 14° 19′ 28″		♌ 11° 9′ 30″		1° 47′ 2″	

Table showing the diameter in miles, and the angular diameter of each body, in seconds, when at the mean distance from the Earth; the weights of each as compared with those of the Sun and Earth, and the Densities as compared with that of the Earth, and with equal bulks of water.

	Diameter in		Weight Sun = 1.	Weight Earth = 1.	Density Earth = 1.	Density Water = 1.
	Miles.	Seconds.				
Sun	851736	1923.6″	1.000000	354936.	0.284	1.533
Mercury	2960	6.7″	$\frac{1}{4863751}$	0.0729	1.392	7.518
Venus	7566	17.1″	$\frac{1}{390000}$	0.9101	1.032	5.572
Earth	7925.6		$\frac{1}{354936}$	1.0000	1.000	5.4
Mars	3900	5.8″	$\frac{1}{2680637}$	0.1324	1.105	5.965
Jupiter	88316	38.4″	$\frac{1}{1047.379}$	338.718	0.258	1.393
Saturn	71936	17.1″	$\frac{1}{3501.6}$	101.364	0.149	0.804
Uranus	34704	4.1″	$\frac{1}{24903}$	14.252	0.19	1.025
Neptune	32243	2.4″	$\frac{1}{18730}$	18.98	0.335	1.807

The following are the Elements of the Moon, and of her Orbit.

Mean Distance in Radii of Earth	59.96435	Sidereal Revolution, days,	27.321661418
Mean Distance in Miles,	237,626	Synodical Revolution,	29.530488715
Eccentricity of Orbit,	0.054844	Inclination of Orbit,	5° 8′ 47.9″
Diameter in Miles,	2153	Revolution of Nodes, Days,	6798.28
Angular Semi-diameter	14′ 44″ to 16′ 46″	Revolution of Perigee,	3232.57534
Weight (Earth = 1),	0.011399	Density (Earth = 1).	0.5657

Weight of Earth and Moon (Sun being 1), = $\frac{1}{354710}$

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

Plate I.

Contains representations of the planets Venus and Mars, Jupiter and Saturn. The figure of Venus (Fig. 2) is copied from a drawing by Schroeter representing the planet near its inferior conjunction. The figure of Mars (Fig. 1) is copied from a drawing by Secchi. The figure of Jupiter, (Fig. 3) is copied from a drawing in the Sidereal Messenger, and the figure of Saturn (Fig. 4) is copied from a drawing by Dawes.

Plate II.

Shows the apparent size of the Sun as viewed from the several planets, and the relative sizes of the eight principal planets.

Plate III.

Is a representation of the appearance of the full Moon, copied from the engraving of Bear and Maedler—also a representation of portion of the moon's surface as seen with a powerful telescope near the time of the first quarter.

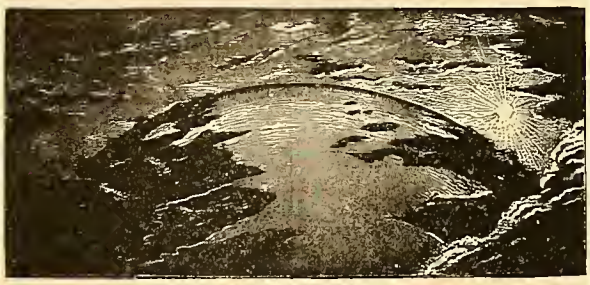
Plate IV.

Contains representations of Comets. Fig. 1 is a representation of Halley's comet as it appeared to the naked eye October 29, 1835, according to Strave. Fig. 2 is a representation of Donati's comet as it appeared to the naked eye October 10, 1858, according to Prof. Bond. Fig. 3 is a telescopic view of the head of Donati's comet as it appeared October 2, 1858, according to Prof. Bond.

Plate V.

This Map shows all the prominent constellations visible in the United States; the center is the North Pole. The map shows all the Fixed Stars of not less than the third magnitude, with many of the smaller stars.

THE EARTH WITHOUT MAN.



WITH A GEOLOGICAL CHART.

CHAPTER II.

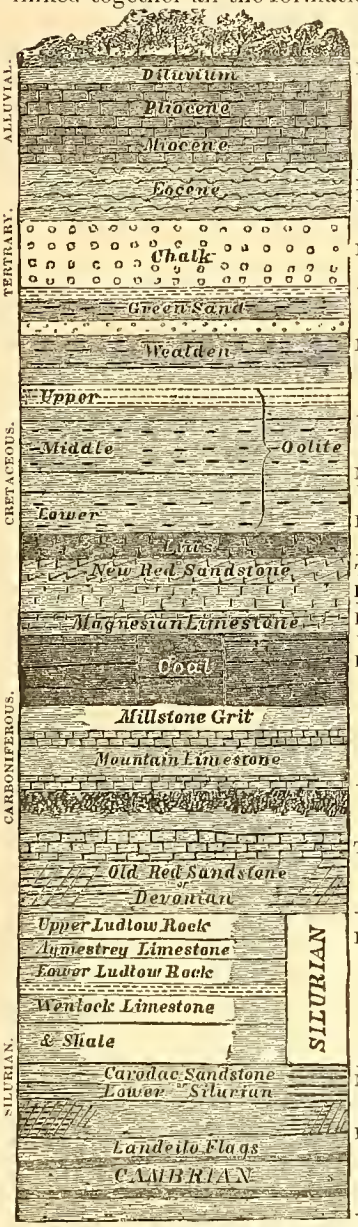
MATTER AND MOTION—THEORIES OF CREATION—GEOLOGICAL PERIODS—NATURE AND MAN—THE CONTINENTS AND POPULATION—GEOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENTS—FROM SPONGE TO MAN—THE ANIMAL KINGDOM.

IF the facilities for studying all the planets of our solar system were the same, this world would dwindle into insignificance, being one of the smallest of the heavenly bodies. It is, however, able to boast a surface of 197,124,000 square miles, and a planetary mass amounting to 256,000 millions of cubic feet. All this matter is in constant motion. The "changeless rocks" are never at rest, absolutely. As the earth itself is in motion, so are its component parts. Gradual changes are being wrought through this activity. "Nature, immutable in its laws, but forever variable in its phenomena, never repeats itself." The rotation of the earth is around an ideal axis, passing through the two poles. The movement is from right to left, or from west to east, that is, contrary to the apparent motion of the sun and stars.

The origin of the earth is an unsolved, if not an insoluble, mystery. Ingenious theories on this subject have been elaborated, but none of them have been actually verified. Kant, Laplace, and others, have devoted a good deal of study to the birth of the earth. Their ideas are interesting, without being satisfactory, or worthy of more than mere reference in this connection. We know that it was a slow development. That much is certain. The records of geology show that "in the beginning," must have been millions, and probably billions, of ages ago, and that the present life, animal and vegetable, of the world, including man, must be of comparatively recent date. The commonly received opinion is that originally the planets were sparks from the sun, vast gaseous or liquid matter, and that, by a process of cooling and solidifying, was brought into existence the rocks, soil, and various transmutations which make up a habitable world. It is supposed that some planets are now going through the process of preparation for utility, and perhaps others, again, have literally outlived their usefulness.

With a lamp of geological science for guide, one might, by descending a shaft sunk deeply in the earth, read, page by page, the history written in the strata penetrated. Each stratum represents and records a vast and distinct formative period. These strata may be classed as shown in the subjoined chart. The organic remains, animal or vegetable, which are contained in a greater part of these various formations, afford the principal data for ascertaining, frequently with absolute certainty, the order of succession of the various layers. There is, however, more or less lapping over, the ages not being so perfectly disconnected in productions as the scientists at one time supposed.

"The idea is not warranted," says Reclus, "which connects some kind of cataclysm with the end of each geological period, and continuity of life has linked together all the formations, from the organ-



THE EARTH'S STRATA. (Hitchcock.)

ized beings which first made their appearance on earth, down to the countless multitudes which now inhabit it." To this may be added, in a general way, that the higher the organism is raised in the scale of being, the narrower the limits between which it is confined. Man, for instance, is found in all parts of the world, but the higher types of manhood are quite limited. Human remains are to be found, on the other hand, side by side with the bones of the cave-bear, the mammoth, the woolly rhinoceros, and other extinct species.

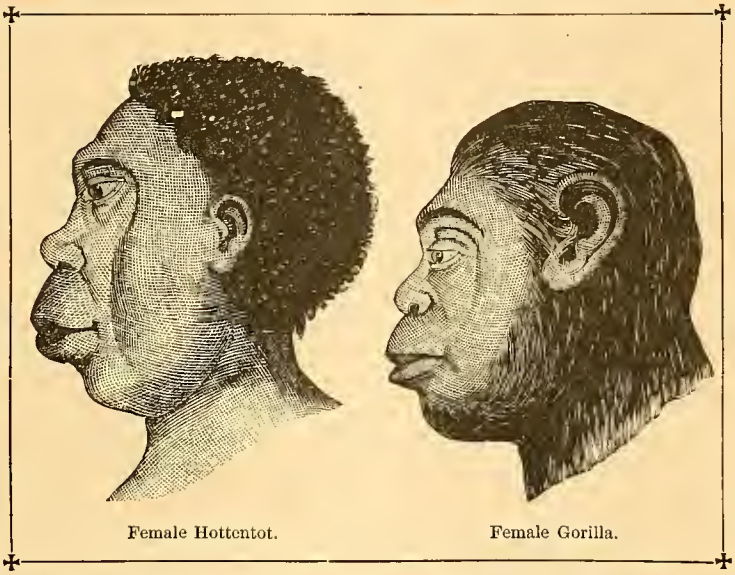
About three-quarters of the earth's surface is covered by sea. No part of this surface is without its organic life, and beneath large portions of the land are deposited the vast stores of fuel and metals of every kind. Ample provision is made for the happiness of every kind of creatures. The underground resources belong exclusively to man. He alone can appropriate to his use coal, iron, copper, silver, gold, and kindred resources of nature. The relations man sustains to his surroundings form an interesting subject of study. It is only where all conditions are favorable that satisfactory results can be obtained. It is no less true that, were all nature auspicious, this very favorability would be paralyzing to human effort. Some obstacles must be encountered, or no triumphs are to be expected. Perpetual summer balm, plenty and pleasure unceasing, would undermine the character and debilitate the system, while arctic winter, sterility and suffering are no less benumbing.

On the American continent, the area favorable to civilization is small. In South America the temperate region is narrow, and subject to disadvantages so serious as to preclude the hope of great South American prosperity. North America is much more favored, and, with Asia and Europe, comprises the great area for civilization, and it will be with these continents, for the most part, that general history must have to do, not only now, but during the ages to come. Man can adapt himself to almost any vegetable food nature furnishes. The potato, now as important as wheat, was unknown to our ancestors of a few centuries ago. If there were no wheat or potatoes either, we could get on very well with some of the other cereals and roots. But the continent of America tried in vain to produce a permanent historical civilization without that one animal, the horse. While, therefore, details of zoology would be out of place here, it is well, before proceeding to the records of man, to pause for a brief consideration of the animal kingdom by which man is surrounded, and upon which he is so dependent.

According to Cuvier, the greatest of all naturalists, and second to none as a scientist, the living animals are divided into two great classes, those having backbones, and those destitute of the same; vertebrates, and invertebrates. The former include fishes, reptiles, birds, and mammals, the latter being all those living things which nourish their young by direct food supply from the mother. The invertebrates take in mollusks, such as oysters, snails, cuttle-fish; also spiders, lobsters, and insects generally, including those half-developed, pulpy things called "radiated animals." One of the very lowest forms of life is the sponge, familiar to everybody as a toilet article. The flint is a petrified sponge. The coral, as ornamental as the sponge is useful, is another petrifaction of animal life as found in the sea.

It is a popular theory with the scientists that one form of life develops into another, and that all, from man down, originated in the very lowest form of vitality, a form so very nearly akin to the vegetable kingdom as to be almost indistinguishable from it. This is a theory, not an established fact. If it be true, then, we are not only descended from monkeys, but from a first parent lower in the scale of being than the dumb oyster, the useful sponge, or the beautiful coral. The lowest form of man is about as much like the chimpanzee (the most human of animals) as he is like the civilized man. If this world were visited by a being of intelligence, or rather of capacity for intelligence, but utterly ignorant of what he was to find here, he would infer, as a strong probability, that the development from the least to the greatest was by gradual steps. He would nowhere find any "connecting link," however, but everywhere suggestions and family resemblances.

The soft-footed animalculæ, or rhizopoda, leading up to sponges, *infusoria*, corallines, corals, echinodermata, and parasitic worms, constitute the different species of the first division of animals. The second division, with its countless sorts of worms, is just one step removed from insects, crabs, shrimps, and mollusks. The latter grade into fishes and reptiles. The progress to birds and animals of the mammal family is a much longer stride; still the resemblances are preserved throughout. The embryo and the skeleton, however, show the kinship of nature more clearly than existence in its perfection. For instance, there is no mistaking the man and the orangoutang, seen in any vitality, but their skeletons, with hands and feet cut off, are almost indistinguishable. That any species ever passed over, by development, into another species, is a theory without the support of direct evidence. There is not an attribute of man, however, which is not found in rudimentary form in the brute creation. The old idea of instinct, in distinction from reason, has been abandoned. Rational use of intellectual faculties accounts for intelligence, judgment and efficiency, whether in man or beast, bird or insect.



Female Hottentot. Female Gorilla.

The animal kingdom has been compared to a great city. From it go out many thoroughfares, and each street has its own starting-point and destination, not necessarily separate in all respects, but maintaining individuality even in intersections. Along these streets are found all sorts of people, and all sorts of business. The Broadway of this city of Existence is Man. All other roads, whether parallel with or at right-angles to it, are tributary, and contribute to its supremacy. There is interdependence throughout, but all in consistence with the grand idea of climacteric unity in man's rule over "the earth and the fullness thereof."

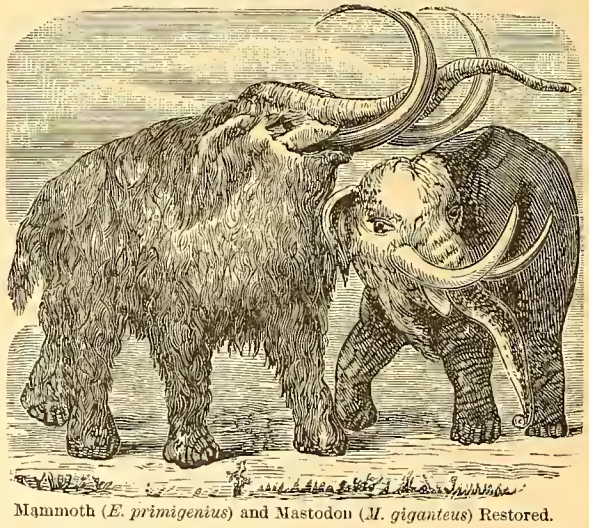
PREHISTORIC MAN.

CHAPTER III.

THE GOLDEN AGE OF FABLE—PRIMITIVE SAVAGE—FROM HUNTER TO SHEPHERD—FROM SHEPHERD TO FARMER—PRIMITIVE IMPLEMENTS—STONE AND BRONZE—GRADATIONS OF DEVELOPMENT, AND DEGREES OF SAVAGERY—CELTS AND CELTIC PROGRESS—SIR JOHN LUBBOCK'S TESTIMONY—PREHISTORIC AND UNHISTORIC MAN.

THE poetic fancy in all ages has depicted primitive man as a delightful and angelic being. All civilized people have had their golden age of the past. If, as in the case of all Europe, the barbaric age lapped on the age of civilization, compelling a recognition of ancestral savagism, still the imagination would travel back to a more remote ancestry to find an honorable origin. But now, the poetic faculty has been superseded by the scientific sense, and we must all admit, whatever our fancies and conceits, that man in his first estate was a savage of the lowest type. A few years ago, it would have been positively absurd in a historical work, to treat of prehistoric man. It would have been set down as self-evidently preposterous. But there is a history older than history. The annals of primeval man do not follow out any line of chronology with exactness, nor do they present to the mind individual types and details. They simply show us the stages by which the savage became a man capable of historic achievements. For this we are indebted to archæology, which may be defined as the history of men and things which have no history.

The Roman poet, Horace, was almost prophetic of what would be discovered centuries after him, when he wrote: "When these brutes, now called



Mammoth (*E. primigenius*) and Mastodon (*M. giganteus*) Restored.

men, first crawled out of the ground, a dumb and dirty lot, they fought for nuts and sheltering spots, with nail and fist; then with sticks; later, with arms forged of metal. Then they invented names and words. With language and thought, came cities, and some relief from strife." In the days of the mammoth, in what seems to have been an almost totally distinct era, man lived in caves, and was on much the same plane of existence as the Fuegians when first discovered. He fed on fruits,

nuts, and roots, on fish or flesh, according to his opportunities and necessities. Emerging, by slow and gradual steps, from the cavern of darkest savagery, primitive man was still a hunter, living by the chase, or a fisher, as circumstances might determine. What is now the recreation of the overworked civilized man was the first employment of the race. A people dependent upon wild beasts of a cave, he has a tent made of the skins of beasts, rude in its simplicity, still a great improvement on a hole in the ground. It was a great step to go from wild to domestic animals. The brute and man meet on the same level when both live by rapine and violence. Grazing is an ascent toward the table-lands of civilization. The Hebrews can trace their descent from that Bedouin sheik, Abra-

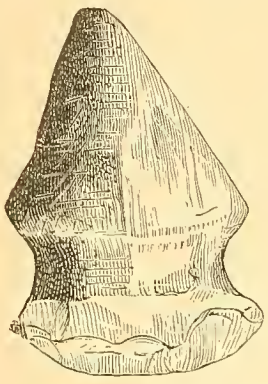
Prehistoric Man.

and fish for sustenance are necessarily migratory. They must follow the trail wherever it leads, and if neither the game nor the fish appear in their accustomed haunts, they must go in search of them.

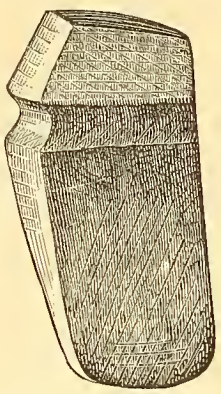
From hunting to pastoral life is the natural gradation. This, too, is somewhat migratory. The flocks must be led beside still waters and into green pastures, be the same far or near. The shepherd is some advance upon the hunter and fisher; still, he is very near the bottom of the ladder. He cannot build him a house or form society. The shepherd must be in constant readiness to move. Instead ham, but we may all rest assured that in the far-away ages our ancestors fed their flocks and pitched their tents in true Arabic fashion, however obscure the annals may be. The hunter may be as isolated from the rest of his kind as the deer of the forest, mating only at the fierce impulse of a passing passion, but the nomad belongs to a tribe. It may be small, or it may branch out into an imposing multitude; it is surely a great improvement. There is a community of interest which begets society and stimulates progress. Most nations can be traced back traditionally, if not historically, to this prim-

itive or tribal system. The father is the patriarch, and as such a little king, absolute, indeed, but without temptation to despotism. Poets love to picture the pastoral life. It has charms for romance and sentiment, especially when viewed from afar.

To the pastoral life succeeds the agricultural phase of progress. Necessity is the mother of civilization. It takes a great deal of land to maintain a very small pastoral population. With the increase of people, it becomes impossible to live by meat and milk alone. Very likely there have, almost from the first, been some crude attempts at tillage, but, in proportion as the people improved, the cultivation of the ground has always gained in relative prominence. It is only when agriculture is the chief reliance of a people that permanent habitations are built, and stable institutions are out of the question with vagrant tribes of flock-tenders. It may be said, then, that when a people have so



Stone Ax. (Mound Builders'.)



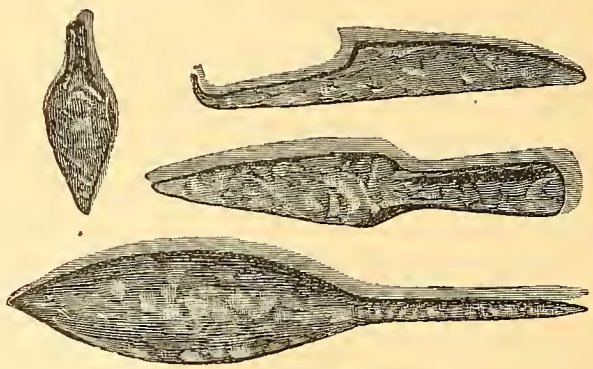
Stone Hammer.

far prospered that they are tillers of the soil, farmers, properly so called, they have reached a stage of civilization which fairly takes them out of the prehistoric list.

There is abundant evidence of the correctness of this theory of progress. We now give the more prominent facts in support of the foregoing observations.

The rude implements discovered in the valley of the Somme, in France; at Hoxne, Santon, Downham, and Thetford, England, in conjunction with elephant remains, and those of other extinct animals, raises a presumption which is irresistible: their makers were rude barbarians. Flint instruments, found in the gravel drifts at Ponte Molle, near Rome, attest the same facts. So do many of the relics of America. In fact, wherever science has explored, and, as it were, had access to the libraries of prehistoric man, the same line of facts has been ascertained. The nearest approach to an exception to this rule is found in America. Here, on this continent, there was once a progress reaching civilization, and that without the pastoral phase. There was, however, an intermediate phase, and the principle of gradation from low to high is perfectly traceable in the remains of the aboriginal Americans, and in Peru there were shepherds with vast flocks of sheep.

Mention has been made of the flint or stone, and of the bronze age. Man seems to have been endowed with a strong predilection for some sort of implement. The researches of archæology have traced out five distinct stages of the stone age, and on so broad a scale as to show the operation everywhere



Copper Relics from Wisconsin.

of the same grand law of growth. First came the rudest flints, mere chunks of stone. Then came flakes chipped from the rock, and showing the dawn of the creative or fashioning faculty. The third stage indicates some skill and art in the fashioning of the flint. The idea of form and comeliness, of adaptability and convenience, crops out. The fourth age was the beginning of grinding or rubbing. The points are made sharp by attrition. The fifth stage brings us to the perfectly polished and quite artistic flint implements, which show constructive invention. Some of these flints are a rude sort of ax, one piece fitted into another, like helve and blade. One is impressed with the immense progress made from the use of a jagged

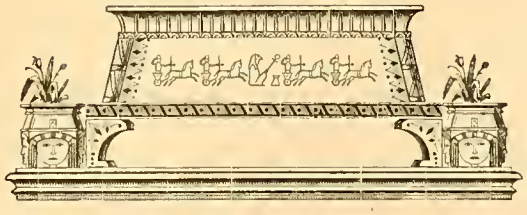
stone, such as an ape might use, to the somewhat curiously wrought and laboriously finished flint hatchet.

While there are found these five gradations, there are indicated by them three stages of human progress. The flints, implements of the cave period, show man at his worst; the flint flakes belong to a people devoted to the chase, while the ground, polished, and fashioned stones bespeak a pastoral age. not unmixed with the initial steps of agriculture, The archæological designations of these three ages are the palæolithic, the mesolithic, and the neolithic. No nation has come up to civilization without passing through those primitive stages.

Between the fifth or stone age and the bronze age intervened a sixth stage, transitional in character, in which copper, cold and crude, was hammered into shape. It was used like a stone, and not fused and fashioned in conformity to the peculiar properties of metals. It was treated as a kind of malleable stone. Very little creative progress was made anywhere during this stage. This period is found everywhere, but evidently continued much longer in the new world than in the old. The Promethean gift of fire seems to have come much earlier to the barbarians of the East than to the savages of the West.

The seventh stage opens to view the bronze age proper. Then began the fusing of metals. The soft copper and hard tin were blended into the bronze of the prehistoric age. That was probably the result of a lucky accident. When once the idea of melting and mixing metals was conceived, the skill slowly attained in the making of stone and copper implements was brought into requisition, and improvements were easy and inevitable. The world over are found traces of the birth of bronze, the dawn of its day, and the brilliance of its aurora. Manufacturing by molding began. The corner-stone of all construction was laid when smelting and molding commenced, and that corner-stone may be said to have reached around the world. It was at this point of development that the more advanced peoples became celts, i. e., tool-makers and users.

Sir John Lubbock remarks that "the use of bronze weapons is characteristic of a particular phase in the history of civilization, and one which was anterior to the discovery, or, at least, to the general use, of iron. Soon after iron, came pottery. Man found, not only the advantage of softening metals with fire, but of hardening clay with it. A mass of evidence proves that a stone age prevailed in every great district of the inhabited world, followed, as general progress was made, by the other ages named." As Figuier observes, "The development of man must have been doubtless the same in all parts of the earth, or that, in whatever country we may consider him, man must have passed through the same phases in order to arrive at his present state. He must have had everywhere his age of stone, his epoch of bronze, and his epoch of iron, in orderly succession." In a word, the prehistoric man of the past still lives in the unhistoric man of the present, and the march from savagism to civilization is over substantially the same road.



THE MOST ANCIENT EGYPT.

CHAPTER IV.

THE FOUNTAIN-HEAD OF HISTORY—THE GEOGRAPHY OF EGYPT—CLIMATE AND RESOURCES—THE ROSETTA STONE—FIRST EGYPTIAN DYNASTY—CHEOPS, HIS PYRAMID AND SPHINX—THE SHEPHERD KINGS—THE DAWN OF THEBES.

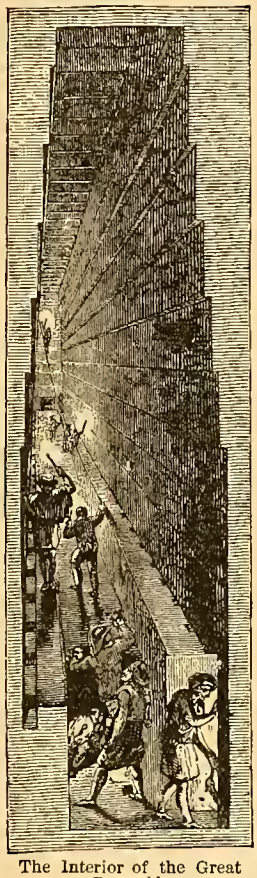
AN attempt has been made to trace man in his civilized state to Ethiopia, but the nearest to that country that research has been able to come is Egypt. The land of the Pharaohs, the pyramids, the Sphinx, and the Nile, if not the veritable cradle of civilization, was its earliest historic home. By civilization is here meant that stream of intelligence and betterment, which, trickling through the ages, has fertilized Europe and America. The myriads of China and Japan are not without a civilization, and it may antedate that of more Western peoples, but it does not belong to that steadily widening current of thought which gives a certain unity to all the lands and times, from the dawn of history to date.

As a term in geography, Egypt represents almost as fixed and unvarying a quantity as America. Nature has determined its boundaries. It is indeed the country of the Nile, or Egyptus, as that river was once called. From the seven mouths of that grand river, through which it debouches into the Mediterranean Sea on the north, to the cataracts or rapids of the south, which arrest navigation at Syene, and from desert to desert, on either side, extends this wonder-land. Upper Egypt is the region of the undivided Nile, and Lower Egypt of the vast delta, through which it flows in several streams, broadening the area of productiveness. Besides these, were a few green spots in the desert, and ports on the Red Sea.

By its geographical position, the country was protected from hostile incursions by a better than Chinese wall, and allowed to develop normally until a comparatively late period. Not that the same race maintained the ascendency all the time, but that the immunity from hostile incursion enjoyed by that people was such as no other nation ever enjoyed until the United States came upon the stage of national development. It was not necessary to exhaust the resources and ingenuity of the people in war. There was ample leisure for and incentive to the cultivation of the arts of peace.

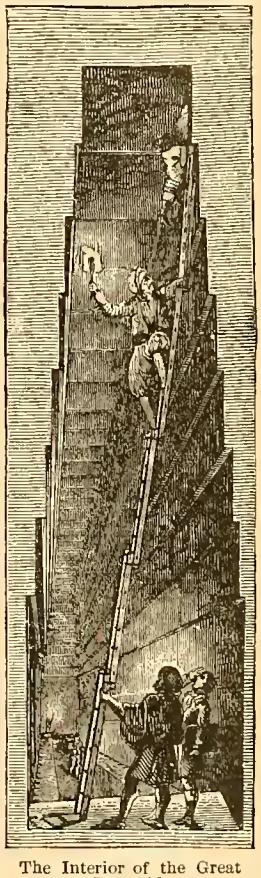
The Rainless Land might be the appellation of Egypt. The productiveness of the soil is not dependent upon capricious clouds. During our spring months the air is sultry and the ground parched. The rains of mountainous Abyssinia commingle in the upper Nile, and by about the middle of June the mighty flood reaches Egypt, and the overflow begins. The fields of the delta are one vast sheet of water during August, September, and October. The villages, built on raised mounds or artificial hills, are little islands. The water is red with Abyssinian mud. When the water disappears, early in November, the alluvial deposit is the richest of soil, and

the vegetation is prodigious. Two crops a year can be raised. First wheat and barley, then corn and rice. The latter crop is sowed to grow during the inundation, giving rise to the proverb about casting bread (seed) upon the water. It is harvested in time for the second crop to be put in, and matured during the same year. A country so fertile can support a very dense population, especially as the water affords facilities for transportation and exchange. For a long time gold and precious stones came from the south, and to some extent commerce is still maintained in that direction. The Nubian mines were the "bonanzas" of antiquity. To them Thebes was largely indebted for its opulence, being for five hundred years the richest city in the world. The water which overflowed the delta supplied the clay for most excellent brick, and a roadway for the stupendous blocks of stone which are still conspicuous and marvelous in ruins. It is from the inscriptions on these monumental ruins that the oldest authentic history must be gleaned. Until a quite recent date those hieroglyphics were a sealed book. The discovery and deciphering of that key to the mysteries of Egyptian records, called the Rosetta Stone, led to the recovery of a lost treasury of knowledge. And here, an account of this pass-key to the historic treasures of Most Ancient Egypt can hardly fail to be read with interest.



The Interior of the Great Pyramid.

The Rosetta Stone was discovered in 1799, at Rosetta, a town on the delta of the Nile. It is supposed to have been set up originally in a temple, and was, in its perfect state, 3 feet 1 inch high, 2 feet 5 inches wide, and 10 inches thick. It has been broken, but has still 14 lines of hieroglyphics, 32 cursive Egyptian, the so-called demotic or enchorial writing, and 54 lines of Greek. The latter serve as the clew to the rest. From the Greek inscription it appears that it was erected in honor of King Ptolemy Epiphanes, in the ninth year of his reign, B. C. 196–7, by the priests assembled in synod. The birth of the king is narrated; also the disturbances in Upper Egypt, the inundation of the Nile, the death of Ptolemy Philopater, the attack of Antiochus, and especially that a copy of this synodical inscription should be carved on a tablet and erected in every temple of the first, second, and third rank, throughout the country. About one-third of the hieroglyphic portion was preserved, and nearly all the Greek and demotic versions of it. At the capitulation of Alexandria to the English, not long after its discovery, it came into possession of the conquerors, and in due time found its way to the British Museum and was published. It was at once recognized as a key to the decipherment of hieroglyphics, if only the combination of the lock could be discovered. Eminent Greek scholars succeeded in restoring the Greek text, and Egyptologists made some progress toward understanding the rest of the inscription. The demotic text is still somewhat inexplicable, but finally, in 1851, Brugsch Bey is supposed to have completed the translation of the hieroglyphics, although the work was not really perfected until 1867.



The Interior of the Great Pyramid.

One year after, another tablet in three languages was found at San. The latter is in good preservation and has 37 lines of hieroglyphics, 76 lines of Greek, and 72 of demotic writing. The decree of Canopsus, served to complete and verify the progress already made in reading hieroglyphics. Between the two, it was positively ascertained that they were used for sounds, not ideas, and the exact import of these sounds was determined.

Following the clew thus furnished, it has been discovered that the earliest dynasty to leave imperishable records was the royal house of Memphis, dating back to B. C. 4400, and coming down to B. C. 3300. The Memphian kingdom was Lower Egypt, now called "the Beharah" by the Arabs. The whole land was divided into states, much as the United States is. They are sometimes designated nomes. These were, at the dawn of history, forty-two in number. Each enjoyed "state rights," but recognized the "national sovereignty" of the chief dynasty, wherever it might be located. The earliest monarch definitely outlined is Menes, the founder of Memphis, and constructor, it is supposed, of the dyke of Cochenke, which now regulates somewhat the overflow of the Nile. He caused temples to be erected in every village or city, which were the main features of the towns. It may be observed that the ancient Egyptians were remarkable for their piety. Many of the priests were the scions of royalty, and the Pharaohs were often, if not usually, addressed as "Your Holiness." Memphis was a seat of learning. A list of the kings who succeeded Menes could be given, but it would be barren of interest, for it is a list of names and nothing else for hundreds of years. There is a suspicious closeness of resemblance between the names of the first conquerors or founders of Egypt, India, Judea, and Greece, namely: Menes, Menu, Moses, and Minos.

The Great Pyramid (Cheops), and the Sphinx.

There were five Memphian dynasties, but only one successor of Menes who towered into the region of perpetual glory, Cheops, the master builder of all the ages. The crowning work of his reign was the pyramid bearing his name. It is 450.75 feet in height by 746 feet broad at the base. Surrounded by seventy minor pyramids, and companioned by that "monarch of the past," the Sphinx, it defies time or rivalry. High about it is piled the sand, but in vain the desert tries to entomb it.

The builder of the Sphinx (called by the Arabs the "Lion of the Night") is not known. It has the form of a lion and the head of a man. It was hewn out of the solid rock, except that the fore-legs, which extend fifty feet from the breast, were added to the body, some idea of which can be formed from the fact that these legs are in good proportion to the rest of that ancient marvel.

The great American humorist Samuel L. Clemens (Mark Twain), putting aside for the moment his cap and bells, thus eloquently gives voice to the sentiment inspired by the august presence of this gigantic work of art:

"After years of waiting, it was before me at last. The great face was so sad, so earnest, so longing, so patient. There was a dignity not of earth in its mien, and in its countenance a benignity such as never anything human wore. It was stone, but it seemed sentient. If ever image of stone thought, it was thinking. It was looking toward the verge of the landscape, yet looking at nothing—nothing but distance and vacancy. It was looking over and beyond everything of the present, and far into the past. It was gazing out over the ocean of Time—over lines of century-waves, which, further and further receding, closed nearer and nearer together, and blended at last into one unbroken tide, away toward the horizon of antiquity. It was thinking of the wars of departed ages; of the empires it had seen created and destroyed; of the nations whose birth it had witnessed, whose progress it had watched, whose annihilation it had noted; of the joy and sorrow, the life and death, the grandeur and decay, of five thousand slow revolving years. It was the type of an attribute of man—of a faculty of his heart and brain. It was Memory—Retrospection—wrought into visible, tangible form. All who know what pathos there is in memories of days that are accomplished, and faces that have vanished—albeit only a trifling score of years gone by—will have some appreciation of the pathos that dwells in these

grave eyes that look so steadfastly back upon the things they knew before History was born, before Tradition had being—things that were, and forms that moved in a vague era which even Poetry and Romance scarce knew of—and passed one by one away, leaving the stony dreamer solitary in the midst of a strange, new age, and uncomprehended scenes. The Sphinx is grand in its loneliness; it is imposing in its magnitude; it is impressive in the mystery that hangs over its story. And there is that in the overshadowing majesty of this eternal figure of stone, with its accusing memory of the deeds of all ages, which reveals to one something of what he shall feel when he shall stand at last in the awful presence of God."

An eminent Egyptologist describes as follows the method of pyramid building: "First the nucleus was formed by the erection of a small pyramid upon the soil of the desert. It was built in steps, and contained a stone chamber, well constructed and finished. Then coverings were added until the final size was reached, and at last all was inclosed in a casing of hard stone, deftly fitted together and polished to a glassy surface. The pyramid, thus finished, presented a gigantic triangle on each of its four sides. The stone used for the inner structure was found near the place of erection, but as the work progressed, better material was brought from the mountain quarries as far up the Nile as the modern Assonan." The granite last referred to was as hard as metal, and susceptible of an exquisite polish. The dates of construction of the Sphinx and the great pyramid are subjects of conjecture, and authorities widely differ in their conclusions. It is supposed that the tenth king of Memphis was reigning when Abraham, forced by the stress of fodder for his flocks, drove his herds to Egypt, there getting himself into trouble by pretending that his wife was his sister. It may be well, in this connection, to speak of an episode in Egyptian history which served to consolidate the country politically. We refer to the reign of the Shepherd Kings, or Hyesos, who scourged Egypt for one hundred years. From the meager accounts preserved, they must have been to that country much what the Golden Horde, or Tartars, were to Russia. A race of shepherds and traders, these Arabs gradually gained a foothold in Lower Egypt. Some think they were the Philistines before they settled in Palestine; others, that they were the Hebrews, between the time when Joseph, or, as the tablets call him, Zephnet-Phœnich—Joseph the Phœnician—was a member of Pharaoh's cabinet, and the subjugation of the Israelites. Be that as it may, for a century or so these interlopers maintained a certain sovereignty over the agricultural and mechanical Egyptians. Salatis was the first of these Shepherd Kings, and five others are named in the chronicles. Finally the people became so restive under foreign domination that Upper and Lower Egypt joined forces and swept the enemy out of the land.

Foreign Captives Making Bricks.

The union thus formed included the minor states of the country, and survived its immediate occasion. The kings of Thebes now became monarchs of all Egypt, much as Ivan the Great secured for the grand princedom of Moscow the sovereignty of all the Russias through the expulsion of the Tartars. The Pharaohs of Abraham, Joseph, and Moses, were the rulers of Memphis, or Lower Egypt, and it was doubtless for the pyramids that the Hebrew slaves were compelled to make "bricks without straw," and it was in all probability from the fecund ooze of the delta of the Nile that the magical and miraculous ten plagues sprung.

And now, without wearying the reader with mere skeletons of facts, names, and dates, we take leave of Most Ancient Egypt, only pausing to make this remark, although Egypt has well been called "the monumental land of all the world," no contemporary monuments of Menes, the first to reign over all the land, have been discovered.

CHAPTER V.

From Memphis to Thebes—Karnak—The Tombs and Cataracts of Upper Egypt—Reform in the Calendar—Amanothph and the Exodus—A Glimpse of Greece—Rameses the Great—Home Development and Conquest—Gold and its Influence.

FOR seven hundred years the scepter of national supremacy, so long held by Memphis, belonged to Thebes. It was not simply a political ascendancy. Memphis and Lower Egypt could boast gigantic works which were a triumph of architectural science, but art, in its more esthetic character, belonged rather to Thebes. That marvelous city, the miracle of history, even in ruins, represents an unbroken chain of reigns, and its tablets preserve the names of monarchs with the most meager details. Of course, the catalogue of those names would be tedious and unprofitable. The city had a road of its own to the Red Sea, and thus not only commanded the Ethiopian trade, but had a seaport. It was a London with its Liverpool. At one time Elephantine, built on an island of the Upper Nile, was the capital of a small kingdom, as was also Heracleopolis, near Memphis. But Thebes and Memphis long enjoyed the sovereignty of Egypt.

In the shadowy days of antiquity, the temple of Karnak "rose like an exhalation," and the countless tombs of Beni-Hassar were tunneled into the hills that form the site of Egyptian Thebes, for this antique city must not be confounded with the Thebes of Greece. These houses of death give a certain deathlessness to Egypt, for upon the walls are depicted the employments and amusements of the people. The resemblance between Egyptian life thousands of years ago and to-day is wonderfully close. Indeed, about Thebes are evidences of the most marvelous achievements in Titanic art. Vast and imperishable stones, such as modern skill could not quarry, served to make the region of Upper Egypt a ceaseless source of interest.

Without attempting to follow the political fortunes of dynasties with closeness, it will be of interest to note the more important facts of this middle period of Egypt.

It was in the year B. C. 1321, that the new period began. It was then the calendar was reformed, a work showing great attainments in science; astronomy especially. It was almost identical with the calendrial reformation inaugurated at Rome by Julius Cæsar, which is the real basis of modern computation of time. Cæsar was little more than a borrower from "the wisdom of the Egyptians," learned while dallying with Cleopatra (for that greatest of Romans had a genius for combining pleasure with more substantial advantages). The fundamental and intimate relation of that old reform in time-keeping with the present system, renders it worth our while to look somewhat minutely into it. The era of which we speak was called Menophres, and of it an eminent Egyptologist remarks

(and we cannot do better than to quote his words): "The observing man may note that every star rises to-day earlier than it did yesterday, and that every morning a fresh set of stars peeps up from the horizon to be seen but for a moment before they are lost in the bright light of the day-break. The day on which a star is thus first seen in the east, is called its heliacal rising, and at the beginning of the era of Menophres, the first day of Thoth, the civil new year's day began, falling on the day the Dog-star was first seen to rise at day-break, which was held to be the natural new year's day, when the Nile began to rise, six weeks before the overflow. This agreement between the natural new year's day and the civil new year's day may have happened simply by the motion of the civil year, but it was possibly accompanied by a reform in the calendar, and by fixing the length of the civil year at 365 days, in the belief that the months would not again move from their seasons. Among the common names of the months, that of the last, the *Bull*, was clearly brought into use at this time, when the year ended with the rising of that constellation. The months, however, were left with the mistakes in their hieroglyphical names, which had arisen from former change of place. The four months which were named after the season of vegetation fell during the overflow of the Nile; the months named after the harvest fell during the height of vegetation, and those named after the inundation fell during harvest time. But if no alteration was made at this time in the calendar, and the civil year already contained 365 days, the addition of the five days had probably been made five hundred years earlier, when the first month of the inundation would have

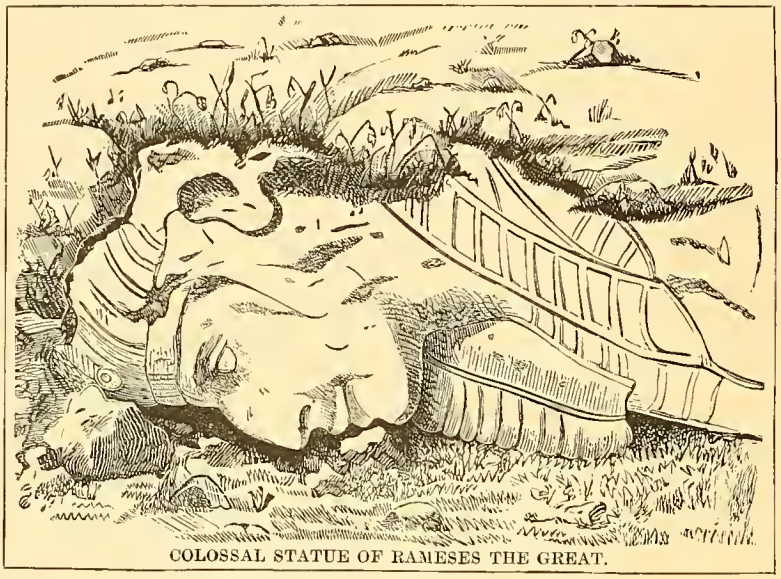
The Egyptian God, Thoth.

begun with the Nile's overflow. The Egyptian year was never altered. For the want of a leap year, 1461 civil years took place in 1460 revolutions of the sun; and in the beginning of the reign of the Roman Emperor Antoninus Pius, the new year's day again came around to the season from which it moved in the reign of the Menophres. Again, Plutarch says, that the God Thoth, *i. e.* King Thothmosis, taught the Egyptians the true length of the year; and the figure of this king is often drawn with a palm-branch, the hieroglyphic for the word year, in each hand, hence it is probable that he is the author of the change in the calendar, made in the year B. C. 1321."

This reformer of time was industrious in many ways. Cleopatra's needle (now in Central Park, New York), and other obelisks, date from his reign. From the lowest part of the kingdom to Nubia, are scattered unmistakable evidences of his constructive energy. At Heliopolis, Ombos and Samneh, temples which must have been marvels of architectural grandeur were erected. But it was during the reign of his son Amanothph II. that the arts were brought to a high degree of perfection, especially the industrial branches. The paintings on the walls of the Theban tombs show this. The artisan life these set forth, reveals advanced civilization. It is supposed that under this king the Hebrew exodus occurred, and we have herein probably supplied to us a missing link in Biblical history. The Bible tells us when Joseph brought his father and brethren into Egypt, and when Moses led them out, but when the transition from pets to slaves occurred, and the intermediate steps, are not suggested in the sacred record. From Joseph, prime minister, and his brethren highly favored, to abject slavery, was a long stride. In the light of Egyptology it seems probable, almost to certainty, that they either were the Shepherd Kings or their allies, and that the period of actual bondage was very brief, less, surely, than one hundred years. Even if they were not at all connected with the Shepherd Kings, they were of the same Arab stock, and the Pharaohs of Thebes and United Egypt naturally "knew not Joseph," belonging as he did to the Memphian kingdom. The mud of the Nile, mixed with chopped straw, and baked in the sun was used very extensively. The Egyptian version of the Exodus is quite unlike the Hebraic account. The priests of Egypt were prejudiced against them because of their religion, and secured their isolation and enslavement. Moses, a learned

priest of Heliopolis, preferred being the chief man among the despised Israelites, rather than one among many aristocratic priests. He espoused their cause, gave them a code of laws, and a reformed religion, encouraged them to form a hostile alliance with the Canaanites, and when they were beaten by Amanothph, he retreated with them into the desert, from which, after years of wandering and hiding from their adversaries, they succeeded in reaching the land of their allies whom in part they dispossessed.

How much this history was a distorted account, we leave the reader to judge. It is certainly interesting and curious. The two peoples thus intimately associated in the far-off days may be said to have given to Europe and America their great characteristics. To those fugitive slaves we owe our religion, and to their pursuers have been traced, through many a devious winding, the general civilization of modern times. It would be interesting to follow the Exodus to the Land of Promise, but that would be a tangent, and we must now dismiss from our thoughts, in connection with Egypt, the children of Israel.



COLOSSAL STATUE OF RAMESES THE GREAT.

Dress of the King.

Thothmosis IV. was the next king of Egypt. The temple which stands between the fore-legs of the Sphinx, near Memphis, was evidently the work of his reign. That edifice shows, as has been observed, that "in this reign at least, though probably much earlier, the rock had been carved into the form of that monster." The next king, Amanothph III., was a great warrior, and did a great deal of temple and tomb building, of wall-painting and of obelisk-carving. He conquered numerous tribes of Ethiopians. His successor, Hornemnes deserves mention for the fact that he was unwittingly the father of Greek civilization. It was this way: Greek pirates, or sailors, much the same thing in old times, had established themselves at Sais, on the east of the Delta, and conducted the Mediterranean commerce of Egypt, being for the most part independent and free. Gradually they spread and improved, enjoying the privilege of intercourse with cultured Egypt for five hundred years. Finally, at the time at which we have arrived they incurred the enmity of the government, They belonged to Lower Egypt, and Upper Egypt ruled the country. They were driven out as the Hebrews had been before them. They returned to Greece, founded several cities (Bœotian Thebes among the number), and thus sowed the seeds of Greek civilization. Athens is supposed to owe its origin to that second great exodus.

We come now upon the name which towers above all other Theban names—Rameses. The first king who bore that name achieved nothing, at least left nothing, which has survived the ravages of three chiliades. His son, Oimemepthah, was an industrious builder, and the inscriptions upon the walls of his structures, are very useful in deciphering the religion of Egypt. The next king, Rameses II., brought the Theban dynasty to its highest glory. War and architecture, sculpture and painting, united in making him the most illustrious of all the mon-

archs the Nile can boast. His name is hardly less imposing than that of Cæsar. He was succeeded by Plhehmen-Meiothph, Oimempthah II., Osinta, Romerer, and four more kings bearing his own name, and then the glory of Thebes departed, not a sudden and overwhelming calamity, like that which dimmed the light of Troy and Jerusalem, but elsewhere, and with diminished luster, shone the star of Egyptian Empire. The last of those kings was a contemporary of Priam, Achilles, Helen, and Ulysses. The period from Rameses the Great to Rameses the last, was nearly two hundred years.

No nation of antiquity relied so much as Egypt did upon the development of its own resources for growth and splendor. Indeed, no other nation ever equaled it in this proud pre-eminence until the United States of America surpassed it. The martial spirit was not wanting even upon the banks of the Nile. The tablets abound in evidences of conquest. Rameses the Great seems to have inaugurated a somewhat new policy. Hitherto wars appear to have been waged for defense, and against encroaching neighbors. But he marched forth upon a campaign of subjugation. The carved and painted walls of Theban temples portray victory over the Ethiopians and the Arabs not only, but Tartars, or Scythians, Medes, Persians, Syrians, Lycians, and, in fine, the countries generally now known as Turkey in Asia, and Russia in Asia. How thorough were his conquests we cannot ascertain, but they were certainly extensive enough to give that king rank among the great soldiers of mankind. The art of war must have been much the same then as it continued to be, down to the invention of gunpowder. Steel was known and used both for offense and defense.

The population of Egypt at its best, when the glory of Thebes was brightest, is supposed to have been about 5,500,000. This estimate is based on the registry of the crown tenants of the military age.

The subjugation of Ethiopia brought the gold-mines of that country into the direct possession of the Egyptians. To realize the importance of this, one should recall the situation of this country before and after the Mexican war. Prior to that conflict the precious metals came into the coffers of the United States through commercial intercourse, but after that, the mines of California (a part of the territory secured from Mexico) were worked to the best advantage, and a new era in prosperity was inaugurated. Those ancient mines diffused wealth over the known world. Even Palestine sat, as it were, under the drippings of the Egyptian mint, and so astonishing was the increase of wealth in Jerusalem, that the chronicles of the Hebrew kings declare that gold was as plenty as stones in the streets of that capital during the reign of Solomon. The Ophir of the Bible is supposed by some to have been simply a port on the Red Sea, the gate through which the gold of Egypt poured into Palestine in exchange for the products of that "land flowing with milk and honey." The exhaustion of those Nubian or Ethiopian mines had much, perhaps most, to do with the decay of Egypt. We shall see further on in this history how Spain derived advantage from the mines of the new world, only to make its fall the greater. The light of three thousand years is too dim to admit of a close analysis of the causes of Egypt's fall, but certain it is, that its prosperity was not abiding, and that by the time the last of the Rameses passed away, the glory of Thebes, which had been gradually fading for a century and a half, suffered a permanent, but not a complete, eclipse.

THE DECLINE OF EGYPT.

CHAPTER VI.

SHISHANK AND BUBASTIS—THE CUSHITE PERIOD—COMMERCE AND DISCOVERY—ASSYRIAN AND PERSIAN WARS—CAMBYSES AND HIS WORK OF DESTRUCTION—EGYPT AND GREECE—THE UNIVERSITY AT HELIOPOLIS—COPTIC JUSTICE, CLOTHING AND DWELLINGS—DOMESTIC LIFE AND POLITICAL DIVISIONS—A SURVEY BY AN EMINENT WRITER.

NATIONS do not build monuments in honor of disaster, and the lights which fall upon the decline of Egypt are for the greater part side-lights. The nation was divided, and the glory of Thebes departed about 950 B. C. Shishank, of Bubastis, in Lower Egypt, succeeded the dynasty of Rameses, so far as that dynasty had succession in power. His capital was about sixty miles from one of the mouths of the Nile. It was very near, if it did not embrace in its immediate jurisdiction the land of Goshen, and was thus that part of Egypt from which the Jews derived many of their ideas, being next to Heliopolis. The Urim and Thummim of the Hebrew priesthood was also worn by the priests of Bubastis. It is generally supposed that the whole history of the fall of man is of Egyptian origin, and the resemblance between the laws, customs and rites of that country and of Palestine are striking, although in many particulars there is a sharp contrast, showing that Moses was no mere copyist. The kings of Bubastis could not extend their sway over the whole country, although they made some conquests abroad. Tanes and Mendes were independent cities and sovereignties, and Thebes was no inconsiderable power long after it had suffered eclipse. It faded out so gradually that it cannot be assigned a date of death. Shishank divided the temporal and the spiritual powers. The soldiers of the Bubastis were obeyed in the Thebaid, but the priests had no jurisdiction beyond their immediate parishes, as the modern term is.

Soon after the death of Shishank, almost interminable civil war became chronic. No master-spirit arose to quell the storm. First one city and then another would be in the ascendant, and foreign dependencies threw off the Egyptian yoke. Notable among these secessions was Ethiopia, and finally that southern nation became the master and Egypt the servant. Although independent, it was Coptic, and as a factor in the development of man, was essentially Egyptian. It contributed no new element to civilization. If, as some suppose, the Ethiopians, called also the Cushites, really antedated the Egyptians in civilization, their subsequent career added no lasting monuments to their glory. The Ethiopians waged fierce warfare with other nations far to the North, especially Assyria, now grown to greatness, but in all the arts followed the models of Egypt, feebly and far off. At the height of its glory, the Nubian gold-mines added to the resources of the kingdom, and some works still stand to attest the imitation of Theban grandeur, notably the temple at Napata, and the monarch of Ethiopia boasted himself to be the well-beloved of Athor, a Theban goddess. Sometimes the Cushite

kings established their court at Thebes, later in Memphis, and still later at Sais, in Lower Egypt. The Ethiopian conquerors, like the Normans who took England, were gradually absorbed, and as Normandy was lost sight of, and conquered and conquerors became unified as Englishmen, so Cushite and native Coptic gradually merged in Egyptians. This Cushite period, as it might be called, was not without its glory. From the Greeks and Phœnicians the people learned navigation and caught the spirit of enterprise. The priests tried to discourage all progress, and did succeed in greatly hampering it, but some of the monarchs were great and secular.

About the middle of the seventh century before the Christian era, Psammeticus I. encouraged intercourse with the Greeks. He employed them as soldiers, gave Greek names to his children, and allowed colonies from Greece to settle upon the Delta. His son, Necho II., sent a fleet on a voyage of discovery from the Red Sea, with a view to circumnavigate Africa, and see if there were not some "Northwest" passage for commerce. The expedition covered a period of three years. The Straits of Gibraltar were discovered and sailed through. As far as known, this was the most far-reaching voyage which had ever been undertaken at that time, and quite outstripped the "sailor's yarn" spun by Homer about the wanderings of Ulysses.

Necho carried on extensive wars with the Assyrians, or, as by that time they deserved to be called, Babylonians or Chaldeans, for Nineveh had fallen. This line of military policy was carried on with varying fortunes, amid scenes no longer of much interest, until Cyrus the Mede crushed the liberties of Egypt. What he began, his son Cambyses finished. He thoroughly overthrew the ancient empire of Egypt, and henceforth its most ancient form ceased to exist. The original, independent and African nation was no more. Afterwards Cambyses took Sais, captured King Psammeticus and over-ran and sacked the cities. From that time on, the Egypt of the pyramids has had only its past to boast of, and its ruins to glory in, and its subsequent achievements have been mainly due to foreign influences.

It was in the year 523 B. C. that Cambyses marched his conquering barbarians into Egypt, and 332 B. C., that Alexander the Great invaded the land of the Sphinx. During those two centuries the country was at the lowest ebb of happiness and the high-water mark of misery. The demoniacal Cambyses madly destroyed and desolated out of wanton savagery. The stupendous works of art at Thebes and elsewhere, were laboriously disfigured and defaced. His wanton Medes and Persians, the Vandals of their day, took special delight in breaking off the heads of statues, the beard being held in as much veneration among them as the "pigtail" is in China. No inconsiderable portion of the destruction now witnessed among the ruins of Egypt is chargeable to them, especially during the reign of the mad Cambyses. His immediate successor, Darius, was a mercenary ruler. He cared more for the spoils and revenue than for malicious gratification. Taken as a whole, that period of two hundred years was one long, relentless, and desolating tyranny, relieved briefly during the war of Xerxes with Greece, when the opportunity for revolt was improved, resulting, however, in no actual benefit to the Egyptians.

That was a dreary period. Its details are uninteresting in the extreme. It is only from the standpoint of general results that it possesses significance. What was really the most important thing of all, was the fall of Egypt as a vast schoolhouse of the nations. The pursuit of knowledge in that country was beset with exceeding difficulty, especially for the Greek. The foreign student of philosophy, science, and art, would need true heroism to trust his life in any part of Egypt, especially if he were a Greek. That was an exceedingly fortunate thing for Greece and the whole world. It stimulated and developed the indigenous civilization of Greece, and contributed incalculably, although indirectly, to the glory of Athens. The intellectual scepter of the world passed from Coptic into Grecian hands, never to be regained. Henceforth the very glories of Egypt, if they do not really belong to Greece, are yet so very Hellenic as to have a distinctive type more suggestive of Athens than of Thebes or Memphis. It was during this decline of Egypt that the university at Heliopolis became the fountain-head of liberal education for the civilized world. The schools of that city cannot be dated in their origin, but it is known that it was there that Solon, Pythagoras, Plato, and the learned Greeks generally, repaired to study not only "the wisdom of the Egyptians," but the science, philosophy, institutions and literature

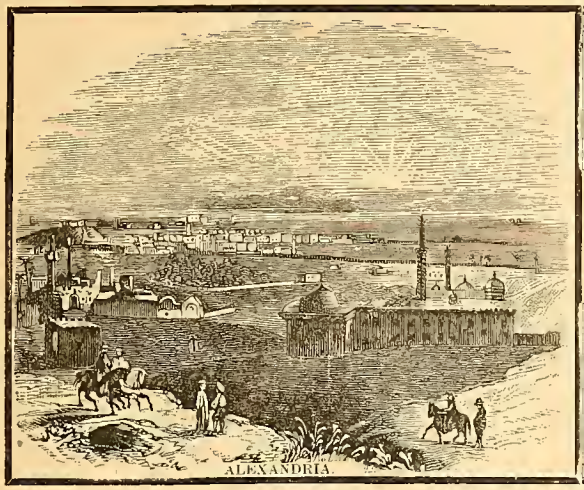
of Assyria, and the whole world of existing civilization. There the scholars of the nations far and near repaired for study, as now they seek the universities of Germany.

There are some features of the laws of the Coptic period which merit attention, but which may belong to the oldest empire, for a common law older than any record of it, is by no means peculiar to English-speaking peoples. The principle of criminal law was retribution, not reform or mere restraint in the future. It was "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth." Slaves were far better protected than children or wives. Forgers were severely punished. Imprisonment for debt was not allowed. The most notable law was what in British and American law is called "the statute of limitations," carried to the extreme that no debt could be collected at law unless it had been acknowledged in writing, provided the defendant denied the obligation under oath.

The clothing of the Egyptians was mostly linen, the women wearing a single garment extending from head to foot; the men, one of coarse texture and somewhat shorter. Sandals were worn generally, but the head was bare, except that something in the way of a badge of distinction was worn. The ordinary dwelling was a small plot of ground inclosed between four unroofed walls. A priest could marry only one wife, but polygamy was allowed to the secular part of the community. The land belonged to the crown, the priesthood, and the soldiery in equal parts, the revenues of the government coming from the peasants on the crown lands. The area of civilization was not far from eleven millions of acres. For political purposes the country was divided into *nomes*, or counties, varying from time to time in number from thirty to forty. There were also township divisions for purposes of government. It may be added in conclusion, that the fine arts of this period compare poorly with the sculpture and painting of Greece; the pupil far surpassing the master.

Speaking of this period, an eminent historian writes: "We now possess but few traces of the Egyptian laws and customs by which to explain the form of government; but there are two circumstances which throw some light upon it, and prove that it was a mixed form, between a monarchy and an aristocracy. First, every soldier was a land-owner, and arms were only trusted to those who had such an estate in the country as would make them wish to guard it from enemies from abroad and from tyrants and tumults at home. These men formed a part of the aristocracy. A second remarkable institution was the hereditary priesthood. Every clergyman, sexton and undertaker, every physician and druggist, every lawyer, writing clerk, schoolmaster and author, every sculptor, painter, and land measurer, every magistrate and every fortune-teller, belonged to the priestly order. Of this sacred body the king, as we learn from the inscriptions, was the head; he was at the same time chief-priest and general-in-chief of the army, while the temples were both royal palaces and walled castles of great strength.

The power of the king must have been in part based on the opinion and religious feeling of the many; and however selfish may have been the priests, however they may have kept back knowledge from the people, or used the terrors of the next world as an engine for their power in this, yet such a government, while more strong, must have been far more free than the government of the sword. Every temple had its own hereditary family of priests, who were at the same time magistrates of the city and the district, holding their power by the same right as the king did his. The union between church and state was complete. But the government must have been a good deal changed by Rameses II. and his father. After all Egypt was united under one scepter, the power of the monarch was too great for the independence of the several cities. The palaces built by these kings were not temples; the foreign tributes and produce of the gold mines were used to keep in pay a standing army; and by a standing army alone could Rameses have fought his battles so far from home as in Asia Minor and on the banks of the Euphrates. The military land-holders were wholly unfitted for foreign warfare." There is no plainer lesson in history than this: However splendid and strong it may seem, a nation which employs for its defense foreign mercenaries, has entered upon its period of decline.



EGYPT AND THE GLORY OF ALEXANDRIA.

CHAPTER VII.

ALEXANDER AND ALEXANDRIA—THE PHYLÆ—PAPYRUS MAKING—ALEXANDER AND EGYPT—FIRST OF THE PTOLEMIES—ALEXANDRIAN COMMERCE AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS—THE MUSEUM—THE LIBRARY—THE PTOLEMIES AND SCIENCE—ALEXANDRIAN PHILOSOPHY—THE MATERIAL DECLINE OF THE CITY—ALEXANDRIAN CHRISTIANITY—THEOLOGICAL WARFARE—ZENOBIA IN EGYPT—PERSIAN RAVAGES—THE SARACEN INVASION.

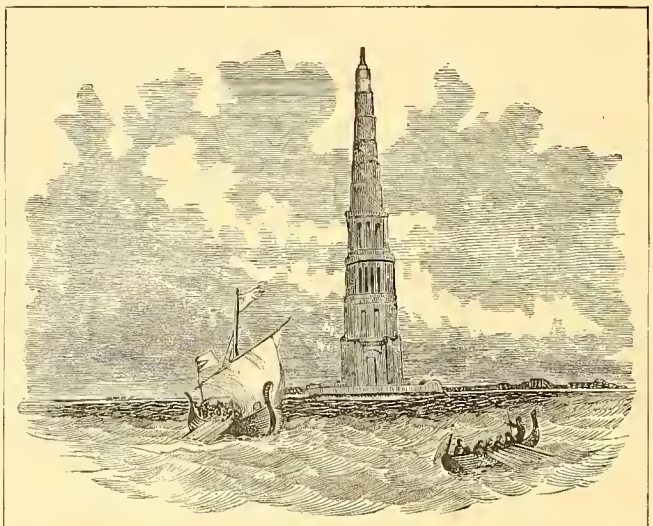
IN the meteoric splendor of Alexander, Greece may well take perpetual pride. It is none the less true that he was by no means a typical Greek. He belonged to barbaric Macedonia, which had little in common with classic Athens, or the culture which has made the name of Greece illustrious. His exploits belong indeed to another portion of this history, but we are now about to enter upon a chapter of the past which constitutes the one grand monument to his glory. His dazzling splendors as a world conqueror will shine forever, but the kingdom was divided upon his untimely death, and fell into fragments. It was saved from universal disgrace by the Ptolemaic dynasty, and the still greater and more enduring genius of Alexandria (for there are local as well as personal genii). We have seen Egypt rise and fall, being the world's greatest academy, even in its decline. But Persian oppression and the enervating influence of wealth had so vitiated the Coptic race that it seemed incapable of recovery. The new period of Egyptian greatness is more Hellenic than Coptic. It is Greece transplanted in Egypt, much as the glory of the United States is England transported to America. For three centuries the dynasty of the Ptolemies endured, and for nine centuries, Alexandria was the great literary and scientific metropolis of the world, rivaling in scholarship, if not original works of genius, Athens and Rome at their best.

Hitherto, in our history, we followed the course of empire as marked out upon the tablets and memorial stones of royal association, but we may now pass out into the broader ocean of literature. About the time of the Persian invasion, papyrus became common and cheap in Egypt, and what is more, the use of letters took the place of picture writing with its slow work and unsatisfactory results. The way was thus made ready for Alexandria with its libraries and book-lore. There are in Europe, to-day, no less than ten thousand Egyptian papyri. But our main concern is with Alexandria, its kings and savants, its erudition and its literature; in fine, the part taken by it in the development of man.

Having established his sway over all Greece and the Grecian cities of Asia Minor, Alexander led his forces against Darius. His war upon the Persians endeared him to the Egyptian heart, so that when he went thither he was hailed as a deliverer. With a quick eye to the possibilities of empire, he determined to erect a city worthy to perpetuate his name near one of the mouths of the Nile, where then stood the small village of Rhacotis. The site was

well chosen, and although he never returned to carry out the plan, his idea, barely begun in his lifetime, bore fruit. Between that little village and the island of Pharos, the water was exceptionally deep and peculiarly well adapted for the harborage of ships.

Alexander treated the Egyptian prejudices with respect, instead of trying to exasperate and humiliate the people. His victories over the Persians made secure his hold upon the land of the pyramids, and his reverence for Ammon and the other deities of the Nile, made his claim of sonship to Ammon a highly appreciated compliment. It was eight years after his entrance upon Egypt that he died at Babylon, during which period very little had been done to carry out his plan beyond preparing the way for it. His half-brother, Philip Arridæus, was declared by his generals, assembled at Babylon, to be his successor. But in the course of a few years the empire fell into fragments, these generals dividing it between themselves. The province of Egypt fell to the lot of Ptolemy. From the first, he was virtually king of the country, and his dynasty continued with varying fortunes, until finally the imperialism of Rome absorbed the country. The city which he built and made his capital, survived the dynasty with which in glory it was indivisibly united for a brilliant series of centuries.



Light-house on the Pharos.—(One of the Seven Wonders of the world.)

The first of the Ptolemies, B. C. 322, was surnamed Soter, and the last in point of fact was Cleopatra, who applied the fatal asp to her breast B. C. 30. The real glory of Alexandria faded gradually as the light of Christianity obscured the brightness of pagan philosophy and science. No other date can be fixed for the final eclipse of its splendor so appropriate as the burning of its marvelous and vast library by the Arabs, A. D. 640. We shall not, however, in this chapter, catalogue the kings who ruled in Alexandria or the emperors who held it in vassalage, but endeavor to give an idea of the actual place held during these years by the city which may be said to furnish the connecting link between ancient and modern times.

This city combined commercial with educational supremacy and in its palmy days, which were many, had about three hundred thousand inhabitants, which, by the way, is about its present population. It was laid out on a generous plan. The two main streets crossed one another at right-angles in the middle of the town, which was from the first, three miles long and nearly a mile wide, with streets wide enough for carriages. Upon the neighboring island of Pharos was erected (about three centuries before Christ) a gigantic light-house of white marble, which is classed as one of the seven wonders of the world. As described, the early city must have been peculiarly modern. The public buildings which fronted the harbor included a chamber of commerce, and beside the wharf and cemetery, there were theaters, circuses, race-courses, public parks, public libraries, public schools, and the temple of Therapis, which might pass for a cathedral. The chief of all these institutions was the University, generally called the Museum.

This Museum was the home of philosophy and learning, the resort of students old and young. Its great hall was devoted to lectures, and was also used as a dining-room, for the physical necessities of the scholars were duly regarded. The state spent vast sums of money in maintaining this institution. On the porch and in the spacious grounds gathered "in groups and knots" the scholars and professors in the pursuit of knowledge. In the old Coptic university previously mentioned, the savants taught only what was, strictly speaking, "the wisdom of the

Egyptians;" but this Hellenic University was truly cosmopolitan. It drew knowledge from the whole world. Its library was early a large one and steadily increased with the growth of literature.

It may be well to say here that the Alexandrian library was fired three times, and nearly destroyed each time; first by Cæsar, when he conquered the city; second by Christian fanaticism, and lastly by Mohammedan fanaticism, the loss being greater upon each repetition. This vast repository of literature was open to the public for reading and for copying, and the latter was an important industry in those days of more thirst for knowledge than facilities for its gratification. The papyrus and the scribe of those days were the printing press and compositor of modern times. The first Ptolemy was a historian of no mean attainments, and the last to make that name illustrious was an astronomer second only to Galileo and Copernicus. It was not bravery alone which was rewarded in Alexandria, nor yet commercial enterprise. Neither was under-rated, but both were held in less repute than scholarship, art, and all which the term culture embraces. Sculptors, painters, poets, historians, linguists, scientists of all kinds, and every dweller upon the lofty table-land of intellectual life, were the real aristocrats of that city. Not only was Alexandria a repository for all the wisdom of Greece, but it embraced the body of Syrian and Assyrian learning and Jewish literature. The scattered writings of the Hebrew tongue were gathered into one book and translated into Greek (for Alexandria being a Grecian city, in fact, made Greek the language of general literature). That translation is known as the Septuagint, and is identical with our Old Testament. Jesus Christ and others in the New Testament, quoted from the Septuagint, whenever they quoted at all from the scriptures of their own people, which shows that the Septuagint was the version used even in Judea.

Never did a sovereign show more appreciation of intellectual superiority, regardless of nationality, than the founder of the great house of Ptolemy. He lived familiarly with the learned men of his capital, courting their society. He was not so much their patron as their friend, for he did not have the offensive ways suggested by the term "patronize." The list of eminent professors at Alexandria would be a very long one, covering the entire range of intellectual pursuits. The noble city was an asylum for the banished free-thinkers of other lands. None were more famous than the physicians. Anatomy was born at Alexandria, and so indeed was natural history. Mathematics was brought to a still higher degree of perfection there than ever before attained. The study of nature by patient analysis and consecutive observation was fairly begun there, without being carried to any very satisfactory degree of perfection. There was in the Alexandrian dissecting-rooms and zoological collections the suggestions of modern science, but the difference is that between the gray of early morn and full sunlight. Unfortunately, between that twilight and this daylight was the almost rayless darkness of a thousand years. When Alexandria fell, night overspread the world, its mantle being finally lifted only by the invention of printing.

The peculiarity of Alexandria as compared with other great cities of learning, ancient and modern, was the paucity and insignificance of its original literature. The copying business seemed to be unfavorable to the development of originality. It can boast no Homer, no Plato, no Virgil, no Horace, no Tacitus. In the world of ideas, poetical or philosophical, its every contribution to literature might perish without any very serious loss. Much has been said of the Alexandrian school of philosophy, its Neoplatonism and its Agnosticism, but these terms suggest vast erudition, with a singular barrenness of ideas. Philo, the Jew, was second to no Alexandrian in his philosophical ability, and his works are extant and accessible to English readers, but they are dreary and vapid. The attempt to adapt Platonic thought to Hebraic theology was futile. The long list of writers, prose and poetic, contains no really great name. It is not for its productions of genius, but for the conservation of learning, that Alexandria is entitled to wear a crown of metropolitan supremacy.

Its commerce continued with some interruptions, but without eclipse, until the trade of India and the far Orient began to go around the continent of Africa, instead of through its northern portion. The voyage around Africa and through the Straits of Gibraltar, previously mentioned, bore little fruit, at least it had no direct connection with the discovery which left Alexandria stranded upon the desert, until the construction, or rather the reconstruction, of

the Suez Canal by DeLesseps, since which time it has resumed some commercial importance.

What has now been said of Alexandria as a seat of learning, prepares one to understand the part taken by that remarkable city in determining the character of Christianity, which service, be it good or ill, was the final glory of the city. The date of the introduction of Christianity into Egypt is uncertain. St. Mark has the traditional honor of its introduction. The first opponent of Christianity, the father of all who assail it as unworthy the "divinity which doth hedge it about," was Celsus of Alexandria. He was answered by his townsman, Origen. That controversy partook of the metaphysical hair-splitting so popular in that university town. Hitherto, the Christians had been content to be practical pietists. The scholarly and scholastic Alexandrians raised and discussed matters of opinion, and inaugurated the terribly demoralizing policy of excommunication on dogmatic ground. Theology, as a field for dialectic combat and angry disputation, was born in the Museum, and was the natural offspring of the Alexandrian school of philosophy. It was there that Bishop Athanasius insisted upon the divinity of Jesus, and Presbyter Arius denied it, carrying the controversy so far as to occasion the Nicene Council and Creed, and making a schism in the church, over a creedal point quite foreign to the simple thought of the primitive Christians. For a time Alexandria was the capital of Christianity, almost as truly as Rome afterwards became. But that proud position was only briefly held. When Constantine had established his court on the Bosphorus, the city named in his honor became the seat of empire for the Greek Church, and Rome as a rival capital, became the metropolitan see for the rival western church.

The opinion of Athanasius was espoused in Rome, and that of Arius in Constantinople, and Alexandria lost its prestige. Constantine sought to make his urban namesake a great seat of learning, the central point of Greek thought, and an intellectual, as well as religious center of influence. In this he so far succeeded as to sap the life of Alexandria. What Roman conquest had hardly impaired, and Arab conquest subsequently attempted, the rivalry of Constantinople very nearly effected. The real secret, however, of Alexandrian decay was the undue prominence given to mere learning in distinction from real thought, and polemical theology in distinction from actual religion.

In the year A. D. 270, occurred an interesting episode in Egyptian history. Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra, one of the most interesting characters in history, was acknowledged by all Egypt as queen. She made the country a province of Syria. Her reign was short, but its influence upon Upper Egypt permanent. Two years after her sovereignty began, she was taken captive by a Roman army and carried in triumph to Rome, to spend the rest of her days in enforced retirement.

The Coptic element still clung to the idea of separation from imperial Rome through Syrian leadership. This movement failed, but the Copts of Upper Egypt were fired with a quenchless purpose to break the hated yoke. When, at length, the Roman Empire was divided, Egypt fell to the lot of the Eastern Empire. That was about the beginning of the fifth century. A century later, the Persians having conquered a large part of Syria, invaded Egypt. Temple ravages were committed, but the capital was not taken. Other raids followed, but no decisive advantage was gained. The country suffered terribly from the rivalries of Persia and the Eastern Empire. Then came the Saracen. One of the first countries to be conquered by the followers of Islam, was the land of the Pharaohs, Alexandria only offering serious resistance. The Saracen commander who won this province was Amru. It was under the Caliphat of Omar. It was by Amru that the Alexandrian library was burned the third time, in obedience to the instructions of Omar, who said, "If the books are the same as the Koran they are useless, if not, they are wicked, therefore they should be burned in any case." In this spirit did the Saracens ever rule all Egypt. It is none the less true, that ultimately, the treasures of Alexandrian knowledge were largely preserved and disseminated in Europe by the Mohammedans rather than the Christians. The service to civilization rendered by the Moors in Spain, might be called without exaggeration, Egypt's last, best gift to mankind.

CHAPTER VIII.

EGYPT, GEOGRAPHICALLY SPEAKING—FROM AMRU TO SALADIN—THE MAMELUKES AND TURKISH SUBJUGATION—PRESENT DYNASTY—DEBT OF EGYPT, AND ITS POLITICAL CONSEQUENCES—RAILROADS AND THE SUEZ CANAL—CAIRO, AND THE PRESENT ALEXANDRIA—THE NILE—NATURAL RESOURCES—SLAVE TRADE AND EDUCATION—PRESENT POPULATION, FELLAHS, COPTS AND TURKS.

OF all the countries of the world Egypt alone is the same, geographically speaking, "yesterday, to-day, and forever." Natural boundaries determine its area. Egypt As It Is, presents the same topographical peculiarities as did the Egypt of the Pyramids and the Sphinx. The country embraced is the lowest or northern division of the valley of the Nile, from the lowest cataract, latitude 24° 3′ 45″ north, to the Mediterranean Sea, latitude 31° 35′. Measured on the meridian line, its length is 450 miles, but making due allowance for the windings of the mighty river, its length reaches 600 miles. The average width is eight miles, the maximum width being 160 miles. The whole area of the valley, including the Delta of the Nile, is only 11,351 square miles. There is a good deal of semi-desert country included in Egypt proper, on either side of the valley, which swells the area to 175,130 square miles. For administrative purposes, there are thirteen provinces or counties. The jurisdiction of Egypt, as a nation, extends to some outlying regions, Nubia, Darfur and a vaguely defined territory, mostly barren sands, with occasional oases.

Between the Egypt which Amru conquered and the present nation of that name, which came into existence, politically, during this century, and is now subject to a novel subjugation, retaining the semblance of independence without its reality, stretches a gulf which may be sufficiently spanned for our purpose in few words; for when Alexandria fell, Egypt became once more enveloped in "a darkness that might be felt." Under the Caliphs, alike at Damascus and Bagdad, it was a mere cipher. The Fatima dynasty of the Saracen Empire gained possession of the country in 970, under which Cairo was founded, and became, as it has remained ever since, the capital. That famous Paynim, Saladin, who did so much to baffle the Crusaders, obtained the sovereignty of Egypt, and a new era seemed about to dawn upon the land; but with his death the Empire was dismembered, and Egypt again lapsed into utter insignificance.

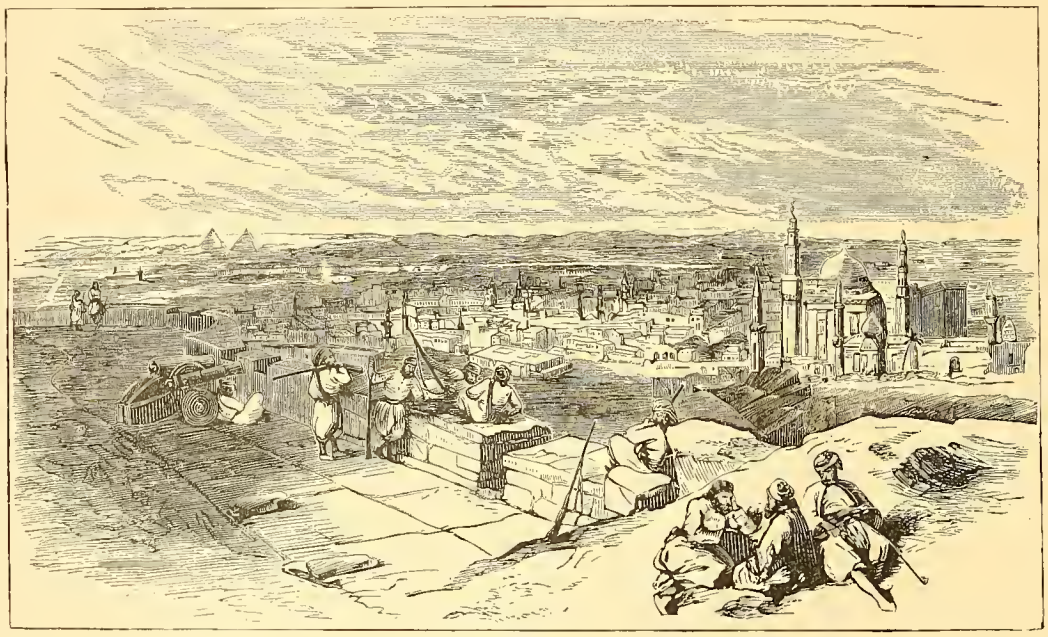
In 1250 came the regime of the Mamelukes. They were Turkish or Caucasian slaves, who became so strong, being trusted with the affairs of state by their enervated masters, that they rose in successful rebellion, deposing the Sultan who feebly reigned at Cairo. They were never fully conquered until Napoleon won the victory of the Pyramids, July, 1798. The Ottoman Empire succeeded, however, in reducing the country to a partial condition of vassalage. This reduction dates from 1517, Selim being the Ottoman sovereign under whom the subjugation was effected.

The present Khedive (Arabic for king), Mehemet Tewfik, came to the throne in 1879, upon the abdi-

cation of his father, Ismail. He is the sixth ruler of the dynasty founded by that truly great man, Mehemet Ali, who was appointed governor of Egypt, as viceroy of the Sultan at Constantinople, in 1806. His reign as a sovereign began five years later. Mehemet Ali remained upon the throne which he himself reared until 1848. His eldest son, Ibrahim, died the same year, and the crown passed to Abbas, Ali's grandson. He wore it until 1854, when his uncle, Saïd, a man nine years his junior, succeeded him. In 1863 Ismail came to the throne, a man of such Oriental extravagance, both in public improvements and personal or household habits, that he became a hopeless bankrupt. His abdication was the result brought about by the combined pressure of British and French creditors. One of the prodigalities of the Khedive was an agreement to pay the Sultan an enormous tribute in exchange for more perfect independence, for the independence achieved by force in 1811 left some vestiges of vassalage. In 1866 the almost complete disinthrallment was purchased by an agreement to pay a liberal annual tribute and furnish Turkey in time of war a contingent of Egyptian soldiers. In everything else the separation was absolute.

The debt of Egypt at the close of 1880 was about $500,000,000. The actual control of the nation is in the hands of an "International Commission of Liquidation," composed of seven members. The present Khedive has an annual allowance of $750,000 for himself, $250,000 for his deposed father, and $350,000 for other members of the royal family.

The railroads of that country are the property of the state. They extend, all told, about a thousand miles. The great public work of Egypt, belonging to modern times and practical matters, is the Suez canal. It has a total length of ninety-two miles, and is wide and deep enough for the passage of large vessels. The sidings serve the same purpose as switches on single-track railroads. The number of vessels which passed through it in 1879 was 1,477, with a tonnage of 3,236,942. It was first opened for business in 1869. The cost, in round numbers, of this short canal was $100,000,000, so difficult was it to protect the channel from the drifting sand This canal was a triumph of French engineering, its projector and constructor having been M. de Lesseps, the indefatigable head of the Panama canal project now being pushed for the uniting of the two great oceans. At the present time the Suez canal is under British control. More than three-fourths



Cairo.

of the shipping which passed through the canal during its first decade belonged to Great Britain. Port Said, on the Mediterranean end of the route, is one terminus, and Suez, on the Red Sea, the other. A new town, Ismailia, came into existence in connection with the canal. None of these towns, however, can boast any real thrift and general business.

Egypt has only two cities of any considerable size, Cairo and Alexandria. They are 117 miles apart. The discovery of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, in 1497, was a far more serious blow to Alexandria than its capture by Amru. Its glory had indeed departed, but it was still an important mart of trade. The commerce of the East flowed through its port, and its marvelous lighthouse continued to be the great beacon of commerce. After Portuguese enterprise had wrought its work of revolution the city dwindled to a population of 6,000 a century ago. But since then it has received a fresh lease of life. Ten years ago the population had reached 220,000. Besides the Pharos, it has a breakwater two miles long which furnishes a roadstead for a very extensive commerce between Europe and India. From its wharfs are exported large quantities of grain, sugar, cotton, and other productions. But it is only in a commercial point of view that the Alexandria of to-day is an important city.

The population of Cairo is about 350,000. It is the religious capital of Mohammedanism It is there that the great university of Islam is located. Not less than ten thousand students assemble there to study the Koran, and con the priestly lore of the Crescent. Saracenic architecture is exhibited in its highest degree of perfection in its numerous mosques and minarets, the most remarkable of the former being the one erected by Sultan Tooloon, in 879.

An ancient Egyptian proverb exclaims, "What,

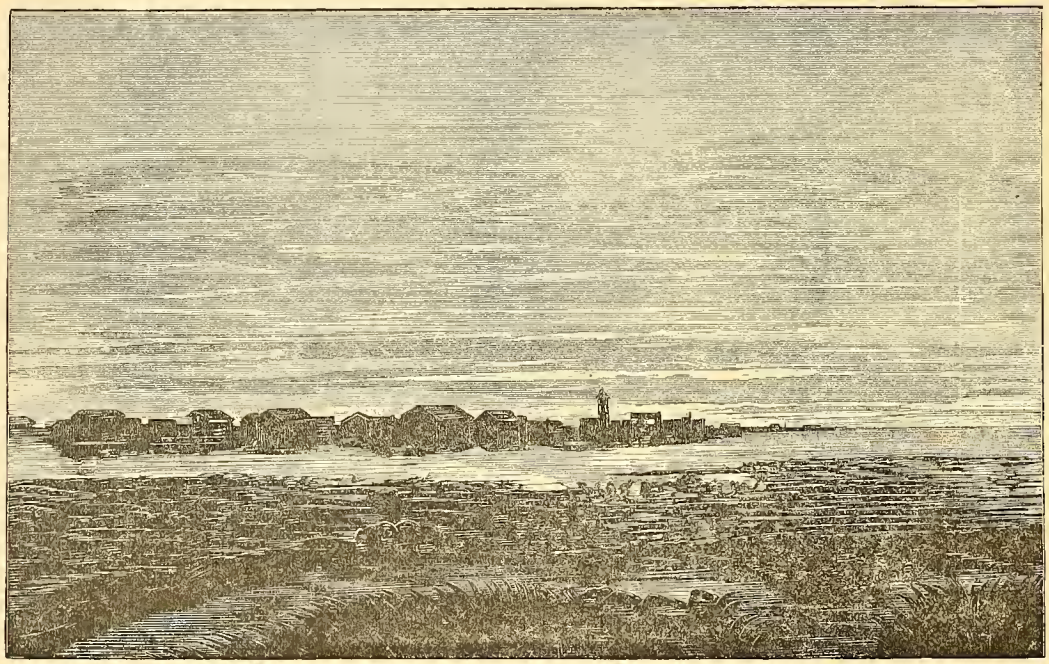
Town of Suez.

want ye wine who have Nilus to drink of?" To no other country is any river anything like as important as the Nile is to Egypt. This mighty stream was long a profound mystery as to its source, and a prolific source of speculation, no less than a tempting field for exploration. It is still somewhat of a mystery, but it is certain that the river is formed by the junction of the Blue and White Nile at Khartoom, the capital of Nubia. The elevation at that point above the level of the sea is 1188 feet. After flowing northerly through about two degrees of latitude, it receives a third and final tributary at El Dumer, called the Black Nile. From this point it

descends, in a round-about way, through several latitudes, forming the famous Cataracts of the Nile, the last being at Assonan, the boundary between Nubia and Egypt. For about fifteen hundred miles this majestic river receives no tributary. The White Nile is believed to be the parent river. It originates in a large lake, the Victoria Nyanza, situated in equatorial mountains.

The valley of the Nile, from Philæ to Cairo, is hedged about by chains of hills. The Delta proper is, however, one dead level—a plain without so much as a hillock. The desert between the Nile and the Red Sea is somewhat diversified by hills. The usual rock formation of the country is limestone, with some granite in the southern portion. The only minerals found in quantities to yield revenue are salt, natron and nitre. The plants which nature produces without tillage usually have hairy, thorny exteriors. The palm-tree flourishes with very little cultivation. Oranges, figs, and tamarinds abound and are of an excellent quality. Olive, mulberry, and poplar trees thrive there.

Zoologically speaking, Egypt does not make very much of a showing. Gazelles, hyenas, and jackals are found in the desert. The crocodile and the hippopotamus rarely visit the lower Nile. Wild hogs roam in the marshes bordering the Delta. Camels, donkeys and mules are raised in large quantities. The principal crops of the farmers are, to name them in the order of their importance, cotton, maize, durra, beans, wheat, barley, rice, lintels, lupine, garden vegetables, clover, sugar-cane, flax, hemp, tobacco, sesame, opium, henna, indigo, safflower, roses, melons, oranges and bananas. Sheep are raised largely, and it is a great country for poultry.



Port Said, and the Northern End of the Canal.

The slave trade still survives in Egypt to some extent, but it is being suppressed gradually, and that mainly through British influence. A system of popular education, very imperfect and inadequate, still of vast advantage to the rising generation, has been adopted, and it is not too much to hope that Egypt may once more have a place among the really important members of the family of living nations. Of the present population, a modern writer has accurately, if somewhat floridly, remarked: "In the ill-paid fellahs who cultivate the soil and work the boats and water-wheels, who live in mud hovels, wearing very little clothing, we see the unprivileged

class, that has labored under various masters from very early times, unnoticed by the historian. These are the same in the form of the skull as the Galla tribe of east Africa, and were probably the earliest inhabitants of the valley. Such were the builders of the pyramids, as we learn by comparing their heads with the great Sphinx. They suffer under the same plagues of boils and blains, of lice and of flies, as in the time of Moses. Their bodies are painted with various colors, pricked into their skin, as they were when the Israelites were forbidden to make any marks on their flesh.

"In the industrious Copts, the Christians of the villages, the counting-house, and the monastery, with skull and features half European and half Eastern, we have the old Egyptian race of the Delta, the ruling class, such as it was in the days of Psammetichus and Shishank. Between Silsilis and the second cataract we find, under the name of Nubians, the same old Egyptian race, but less mixed with Greeks or Arabs. Such were the Nabatæ who fought against Diocletian, and such in features were the kings of Ethiopia, Saba-Cothph, and Ergamenes. We know them by their likeness to the statues, and by their proud contempt of the Fellahs. They were both zealous Christians under Athanasius; but Christianity has only remained among the mixed race of the Copts.

"To the east of the Nile, near Cosseir, and again throughout the whole of Ethiopia from Abou Simbel to Meroe, are the Ababdeh Arabs, brave and lawless. These were the Southern enemies conquered by Rameses, and they often fought against the Romans. They are the owners of the camels now, as they used to be, and are the carriers across the sands of the desert. To the south of Syene, in the desert between Ethiopia and the Red Sea, are the less civilized marauding Bishareen Arabs, the Blemmyes and Troglodytes of the Greeks. These Arabs seem to be less at home on the banks of the Nile than the Copts and the Nubians. They no doubt reached the valley at some later period, when the others were already settled there, and reached not by passing through Egypt, but by crossing over from the Arabian side of the Red Sea.

"In Abyssinia we find a people in features and in language more Hebrew than Arabic. The people Frumentius found there in the reign of Constantine and the people for whom the Ethiopic version of the Bible was made, whose forefathers reached the country in trading vessels from Ezion-geber in the reign of Solomon, or earlier.

"Alexandria is still peopled with sullen Copts, clever Greeks, shabby-looking Jews, with here and there a glossy negro in a white dress. The Christian monks live in peace among the Moslem dervishes. The ruling class who walk along the street with proudest and firmest step are the Turks, in gay, many-colored clothing, while the poor of the city, as of old, are the half-naked, brown-skinned Fellahs." To such a depth has the ancient mother of civilization fallen. The picture is not overdrawn. To the initial observation of this chapter, may be appositely added, that in comparative importance as a member of the household of nations, present Egypt is the greatest conceivable contrast to the Egypt of antiquity.

ETHIOPIA AND THE PHŒNICIANS.

CHAPTER IX.

ETHIOPIAN AND PHŒNICIAN CONJECTURES—ETHIOPIA AND EGYPT—ELECTIVE MONARCHY AND GLIMPSES OF CIVILIZATION—CHRISTIANITY—THE ARTS AND SCIENCES IN ETHIOPIA—MODERN ETHIOPIA, OR ABYSSINIA—PHŒNICIA, AND PHŒNICIAN CITIES—TYRE AND SIDON—COMMERCE AND ENTERPRISE—PHŒNICIAN COLONIES—THE ARTS AND INDUSTRIES OF THE PHŒNICIANS—THE DISAPPEARANCE OF THIS PEOPLE.

OF the honored names in the list of ancient nations and peoples, none are more shadowy and vague than Ethiopia and the Phœnicians. The former stands for a well-defined region of country, primarily, but is often confounded with Africa in general, and Egypt in particular; the latter, applied to a people who can hardly be said to have had an abiding habitation. The Ethiopians occupied a land now penned up and isolated, but once the half-way house between interior Africa and India. There was, indeed, a Phœnicia, but the Phœnicians were free rovers of the seas. Herein the two present the sharpest possible contrast; but in the estimation of many, they are equally entitled to honor; one for originating civilization (an unsubstantiated claim for Ethiopia), and the other for its dissemination. Books of ponderous size and great erudition, if somewhat fanciful in theories, have been written to show that even Egypt and Judea derived their civilization from Ethiopia or Cush, while whole libraries have been published to prove that the promulgation of progressive ideas must be accredited to the enterprising Phœnicians. Without going into the discussion of those speculative themes, it may be of interest in this chapter to familiarize the reader with the lands and peoples suggested by the heading.

In that southeast region where the sources of the Nile have been sought, mountains abound, and there are also rich valleys. From time immemorial, two distinct races have been found there, the Ethiopians and the Arabs. The latter were ever nomads, but the former dwelt in cities, possessed governments and laws, left monumental ruins distinctively their own, and were once far-famed for their arts and culture. The Nubian valley was once as fertile as the delta of the Nile. It is so still, except as the sands of the adjacent deserts have drifted on and overlaid the original soil. Cataracts impede navigation and make a strong barrier between Ethiopia and Egypt. Caravans have always been the dependence of Nubia for commercial intercourse. Camels and dromedaries are river and sea to that country. At the southern extremity of the Nubian valley, the river spreads itself and incloses numerous fertile islands. Along the entire length of this valley, one may even now encounter a succession of grand ruins, monuments which rival in beauty and exceed in sublimity the marvels of Thebes. But for all that, Ethiopia can give no intelligible account of its youth and usefulness. Those monuments are dumb. No Rosetta stone has unsealed their lips. We know from Egyptian records, that the Pharaohs early invaded

the territory, subjugated the people and enriched their own country with the treasures of the vanquished.

From scattered and brief mention here and there in the remotest ages of history, it is evident that the Ethiopians were a warlike people, and at one time masters of the navigation of the Red Sea, and a part of the peninsula of Arabia. They were indeed conquered by Egypt, but later, when Egypt's conqueror, Cambyses, attempted to extend the sway of the Medes and Persians to that country, he failed. Natural barriers were more potent, however, than human prowess.

At one period of Egyptian history the monarchs of that country were Ethiopians. This Cushite dynasty furnished three kings, Sabbakon, Sevechus, and Tarakus, the latter called in the Hebrew history, Tirhakah. In the reign of Psammeticus, the entire warrior caste of Egypt migrated to Ethiopia and became the military instructors of the people.

The Ethiopian kings were elected. The electors were the priests, for there, as everywhere, the church sought to rule the state. A singular custom prevailed. If the ecclesiastics wanted a change in the administration they dispatched a courier to the monarch with orders to die. So potent was superstition and priestcraft, that this mandate appears never to have been resisted until as late as the reign of the second Ptolemy. During that sovereign's rule in Egypt, Ergamenes, of Ethiopia, received orders to

1 An Ethiopian princess traveling in a *plaustram*, or car drawn by oxen. 2 Over her is a sort of umbrella. 3 An attendant. 4 The charioteer or driver.

be his own executioner. But he was a Greek philosopher by education, and instead of meekly obeying, he slew the priests and instituted a new religion.

This country, called also Meroe, was not averse to female sovereignty, if a stranger to female suffrage. More than one queen ruled the land of Cush. The Queen of Sheba is supposed to have been one of the number, and certain it is that Candace, who made war upon Augustus Cæsar, was one of the most illustrious sovereigns of antiquity, scant as is our knowledge of her. She was indeed defeated by the world-conquering legions of Rome, but she was able to secure terms of peace which were highly honorable, and in strong contrast with the tragic fate of Cleopatra.

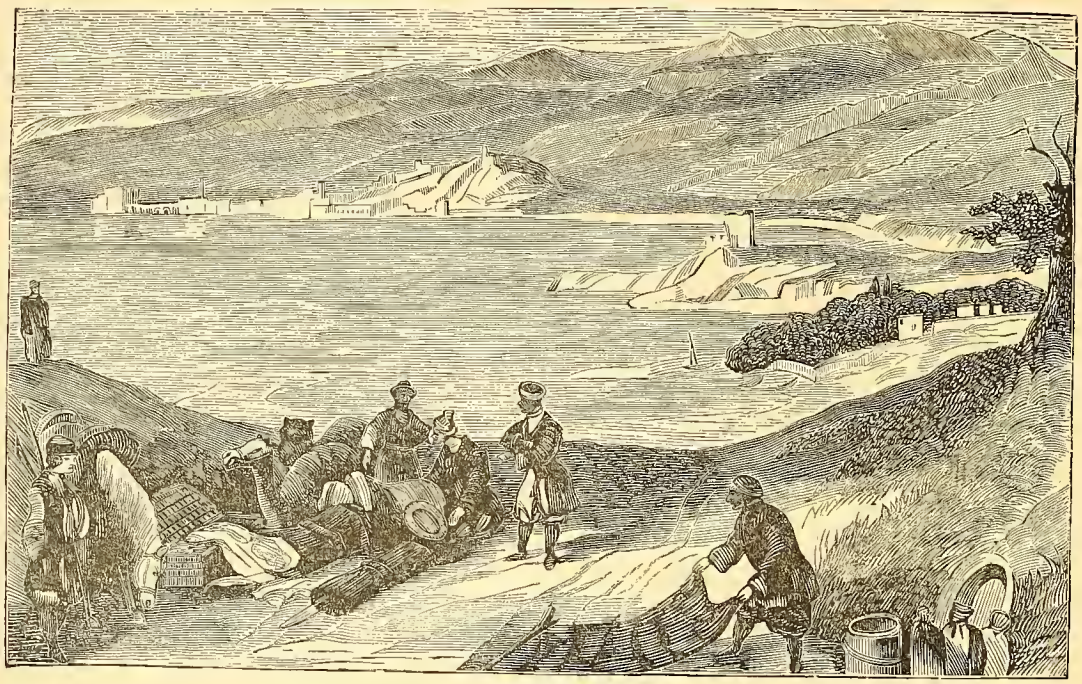
It is highly probable that Ergamenes introduced the worship of Jehovah, among other gods, for under Queen Candace (the second probably of this name) we find, from the Acts of the Apostles, that her Secretary of the Treasury, as the officer would be called in this country, traveled by chariot to Jerusalem for purposes of worship. The account represents him as reading the scriptures as he journeyed (the Septuagint, probably), and as having been converted to Christianity by Philip.

Traces of the Christian religion are to be found in Ethiopia, but the Ethiopians took more readily to the worship of Islam's prophet than to the fellowship of Jesus of Nazareth. That once grand and powerful country long since lapsed into barbarism and ceased to possess interest or importance.

We cannot better close this account of Ethiopia in its relations to antiquity than by quoting Dr. Taylor's comments upon its arts, commerce and manufactures: "The pyramids of Ethiopia, though inferior in size to those of Middle Egypt, are said to surpass them in architectural beauty, and the sepulchers evince the greatest purity of taste. But the most important and striking proof of the progress of the people in the art of building is their knowledge and employment of the arch. The Ethiopian vases depicted on the monuments, though not richly ornamental, display a taste and elegance of form that has never been surpassed in sculpture and coloring. The edifices of Meroe, though not so profusely adorned, rival the choicest specimens of Egyptian art. It was the entrepot of trade between the North and the South, between the East and the West. It does not appear that fabrics were woven in Ethiopia as extensively as in Egypt: but the manufactures of metals must have been at least as flourishing But Meroe owed its greatness less to the produce of its soil or its fac-

tories than to its position on the intersection of the leading caravan-routes of ancient commerce. The great changes in these lines of trade, the devastations of successive conquerors, and revolutions, the fanaticism of the Saracens, and the destruction of the fertile soil by the encroachments of the desert-sands, are causes sufficient for the ruin of such a powerful empire. Its decline was probably accelerated by the pressure of the nomad hordes, who took advantage of its weakness to plunder its defenseless citizens."

with England which began early in 1868. In a few months the conquest was complete, and rather than yield to Sir Robert Napier's demand for unconditional surrender, Theodore committed suicide. Early in his reign he had shown some high qualities of statesmanship, and inspired the hope that Ethiopia would once more become a fairly prosperous country; but that hope was doomed to disappointment. Gondar, the capital and chief city, once had a population of 50,000, but now it has hardly more than one-tenth of that number.



Coast of Tyre.

The population of Abyssinia, the present Ethiopia, so far as there is a modern country corresponding to ancient Cush, is about 12,000,000. The common people are industrious husbandmen, belonging, for the most part, to the Abyssinian Church, a branch of Christianity which retains the Oriental rite of circumcision, as no less binding than baptism and the sacrament of the Lord's Supper. The government is an absolute monarchy. In 1855, Theodore II. was crowned king of Abyssinia, and under him the country came into considerable prominence. He conceived the idea of conquering Egypt. This really chimerical idea, and the imprisonment of certain British subjects, finally involved Theodore in a war

Phœnicia was an insignificant tract of land in the north of Palestine, along the coast of the Mediterranean Sea, of uncertain extent. A plain twenty-eight miles in length and averaging about one mile in width, constituted Phœnicia proper, hemmed in between the sea and the mountains. Later, the term applied to a strip of country 120 miles long and some twenty miles wide. The modern Beirut is within its limits. So were the old cities of Byblus, Tripolis, and Aradnus. But the cities which made it illustrious were Tyre and Sidon, or Zidon, proverbial in the days of our Savior for their wickedness. Both were great commercial cities, less than twenty miles distant from each other. The modern name

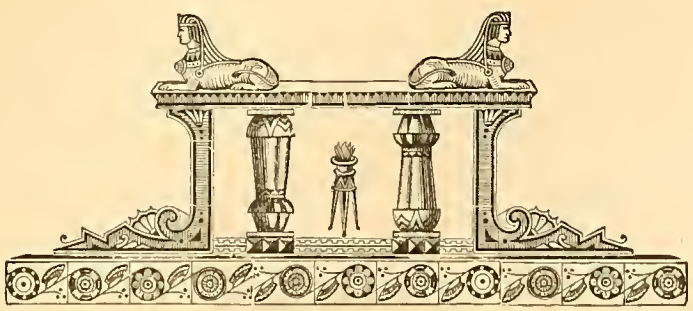
of Sidon is Saida. Tyre is now in utter ruin. It was overthrown by Alexander the Great, and its destruction prepared the way for the supremacy of Alexandria. All the other cities of Phœnicia accepted the Grecian yoke without a struggle. Tyre regained somewhat its ancient prosperity, but never its relative importance. Its complete destruction occurred during the Crusades. The people became convinced that their position was a most unfortunate one, being especially liable to military depredation, and so, as a Venetian historian expresses it, "the Tyrians, one day at vespers, leaving the city empty, without the stroke of a sword, without the tumult of war, embarked on board their vessels and sailed away, no more to return." That was a proceeding eminently in keeping with the Phœnician spirit of adventure. They had always been a sea-faring people.

They dwelt along a coast indented with harbors and bays, well supplied with timber suitable to shipping purposes. The famous "Cedars of Lebanon" belonged to, and largely explain the maritime enterprise of, the Phœnicians. Their cities were not parts of one great empire, but free and independent states, joined together by the loose tie of a confederate league, Sidon being the head-center at first, and afterwards Tyre. The people were sailors and merchants, and the dividing line between piracy and commerce was vague and uncertain.

The earliest authentic history of the Phœnicians, is the account of the reign of Abica of Tyre (B. C. 1050). That was in the days of David. His son and heir, Hiram, was a broad-minded sovereign, as his negotiations with David and Solomon show. Under him, Tyre was the commercial capital of the world. One hundred and fifty years later, Carthage was founded. It was an offshoot of Tyre, and served an important purpose in the westward extension of commerce. Its struggle with Rome for the supremacy of the world belongs to a later period of this history.

Apart from that struggle, known as the Punic Wars, the Phœnicians were content to confine their ambition to the water. That was their element. Of course they had a large land trade, for it was necessary to their merchant marine. That trade had three branches,—the Arabian, which included the Egyptian, and that with the Indian seas; the Babylonian, or the heart of Central Asia and North India; the Armenian, including what would now be called Southern Russia. What their ships did was to bridge the watery gulfs, which neither camels nor the fragile boats of the Nile could cross, and thus maintained commerce between peoples otherwise isolated from each other. Vast caravans from "Araby the Blessed" brought frankincense, myrrh, cassia, gold, and precious stones, cinnamon, ivory, ebony, and similar merchandise. Like the Jew of to-day, the Phœnician was to be found wherever there was money to be made in traffic, and since commerce is the great agency in the advancement of civilization, the corsairs of Tyre and Sidon were, in effect, however mercenary their designs, the great evangelists of antiquity, missionaries of learning and progress. They submitted to Nebuchadnezzar without serious resistance, and later, to Persia, but all the while maintained commercial liberty. The payment of tribute was exacted and complied with.

All along the Mediterranean, Phœnician colonies were established, and trading-posts grew into cities. These colonies were to be found on either shore, and on mainland and island. They even pushed their adventurous keels through the straits of Gibraltar, establishing trade with the Britons and the Scandinavians.



THE JEWS.

CHAPTER X.

A Peculiar People—The Fatherhood of Abraham—From Isaac to Moses—The Great Lawgiver—The Period of the Judges—Saul and David—Solomon; King, Poet and Philosopher—Disunion and Subjugation—The Restoration and the Maccabees—Under the Roman Rod—The Destruction of Jerusalem—Persecution in Dispersion—Improved Condition of the Jews—Jerusalem no longer their Dream of Paradise.

THE object of this chapter is to bring to mind the more important features of scriptural history, and such material trials and experiences as throw light thereupon, reserving for another connection that crowning glory of the Jews, Jesus Christ and his mission. Christianity belongs to the present, albeit its roots draw nourishment from the past. A Hebrew chronological table will be found in the Tables of References.

In taking a general survey of the whole world, past and present, one nationality stands out conspicuous for its distinctive characteristics. The Jews are that nationality. They are indeed "a peculiar people." Despised and persecuted, dispersed and maligned for nearly two thousand years, they remain steadfast and apart, clinging with tireless tenacity to their immemorial customs, the Hebraic blood unmixed and pure, always and everywhere. Wherever found (and they are almost ubiquitous) they are as distinctly "the children of Israel" as if intermarriage with other nations were an absolute impossibility. With a history as specific as if it were the record of a day, they take us back to the very foundation of all existence, and show us the founder of the nation, Abraham, in his relations to the whole human family. He was an

An Arab Sheik.

Arab Sheik and belonged to a tribe of Bedouin shepherds, which sacrificed their first-born to appease the gods of their idolatry. Abraham, who was born about B. C. 2200, enjoined upon his descendants the substitution of a sacrificial beast for a human being, assuring them that he did so by the express command of Jehovah, whom they should worship in all singleness of devotion. The story of the rescue of Isaac by divine interposition is told

with minuteness, and must have produced a profound impression. Then, too, he took care to remove to a region of country remote from his ancestral home. When, in later time, the history of the Jews began to be written, the record was carried back to the very morning of creation, and each generation given from Adam down, together with many details, such as the sacrifice of Abel, the wickedness of the antediluvians, the Deluge, the Tower of Babel, and other incidents too familiar to be mentioned here, but all of which, taken together, tended to strengthen the hold upon the children of Abraham of the religious changes instituted, and out of which the distinctive nationality of the Jews grew, by a gradual process of development. The oneness of the Deity, and Abraham's abhorrence of human sacrifices, may be called the Joachim and Boaz of the Hebrew temple, the parent thoughts of the very nation itself. Isaac did not make any marked contribution to the nationality. He lacked the vigor and the personal power of his father Abraham, and his son Jacob, or Israel. The latter saw

Arrival of Jacob's Family in Egypt.

his somewhat numerous family, with their vast flocks, comfortably quartered on the rich pastures of Lower Egypt—Goshen—while one of the sons was prime minister of that great kingdom. That must have been a proud day for the patriarch. But he was not unmindful of the great mission of fidelity to Jehovah which his grandfather inaugurated, and with his dying breath he besought his children to be true to the great trust of nationality bequeathed to them. His eye of faith saw his descendants wending their way back from Egypt to Canaan, there to make trial of a pure theocracy. It was four hundred years before that hope was realized. Some idea of what the Jews learned during those centuries may be inferred from a perusal of Egyptian history. How much of that time was spent in slavery we know not, but it is safe to say that the Hebrews had the full benefit of the discipline of bondage, and also of association on terms of amity with the most civilized people then on the globe, and that by the time they returned to Palestine they were incomparably better prepared for the responsibilities of nationality than they would have been had they remained wandering shepherds, dwelling in tents and seeking new pasturage as immediate wants might dictate.

Moses was a greater genius than Joseph, or any of his ancestors. He was a thorough scholar, familiar with all the learning of the day, and the laws, customs, and history of Egypt. To learning he added reflection. It was not in vain that he fed the flocks of Jethro forty years. During those years of seclusion he had time for meditation and the development of vast ideas. When, at length, the time came for him to lead the Hebrews out of bondage, he was prepared to be their great lawgiver. Whatever view one may take of inspiration, it must be conceded that the preliminary experience of Moses was admirably adapted to prepare him for the great work in hand, and here it may be well to say that it would be improper in a work of this kind to enter at all upon the discussion of the inspiration of the Bible or the special interposition of Providence in Jewish affairs.

Counting the years of captivity in Babylon, the Hebrew nation dwelt in Canaan about fifteen hundred years. It was B. C. 1450 when they crossed Jordan equipped with an elaborate code of laws and system of worship. It was to be a theocracy, the government acknowledging no king but Jehovah, the priesthood being the nearest approach to royalty. Moses was not the founder of a dynasty. From infancy to manhood the adopted child of a king's daughter, he still had no sympathy with the pomp, pageantry and luxuries of court. He tried to preserve the Hebrews from such an incubus. For a few hundred years the experiment of a pure theocracy, with leaders called "Judges," worked well; at least, it gave satisfaction; but the people finally wearied of such Arcadian simplicity. There were fifteen judges, ending with Samuel, and including one woman, Deborah, and that strongest of men, Samson. That was a period of much conflict and not much real progress. The books of Joshua and

Judges reveal to us a people on the brink of utter barbarism, sunk in the depths of ignorance, and in imminent danger of lapsing permanently into idolatry. It was at the beginning of the fifteenth century before Christ, that Joshua led the people across Jordan, and the last of the eleventh century when Samuel, the last of the judges, delivered up the reins of government. To that period belonged Deborah with her song, Gideon and his band, Jephthah and his daughter, and Samson the strong; all so familiar to the reader as to call for only the briefest mention.

The first king, Saul, was evidently chosen for his great stature, while his successor, David, was a man of genius. From the character given Saul one is not surprised that he failed to found a dynasty. David is spoken of as a man after God's own heart, by which it is not implied that Deity approved the many wrongs he did, but that he was the right kind of man to develop the rude Hebrews into an important nation, and gain for that people recognition among the family of nations. It was during the reign of this sovereign that the Jews were able to secure diplomatic connection with Egypt, Phœnicia and other nations in the vicinity. David was a great warrior, a true statesman, and a good poet. He had a versatile genius. Some of his psalms are too military and vehement to suit the present taste, but that he is entitled to high rank in the world of poesy is indisputable. As a statesman he was too much devoted to his own particular tribe, Judah, in distinction from Israel as a whole. The dismemberment of the kingdom followed at the death of his successor and son, Solomon. The nation was never reunited politically, but all tribal distinctions were ages ago obliterated, and it is impossible to discriminate between the Jews proper and the Ten Tribes.

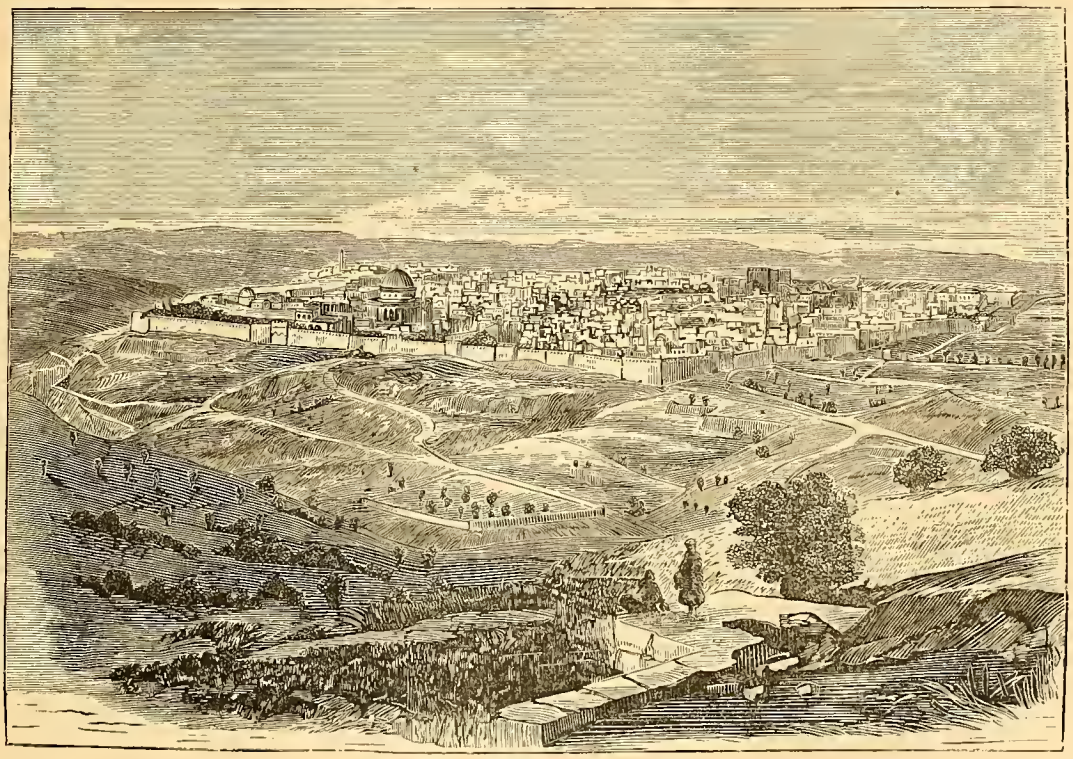
Solomon was another great genius. The proverbs attributed to him may be a collection of national proverbs, but the song which bears his name attests the exuberance of his youthful imagination, while the Ecclesiastes attests the profound philosophy of his old age. The young man who could sing only of love, and who had every opportunity for enjoyment, recorded in his old age the utter vanity of earth. He was the great poet and the one philosopher of old Judea.

From the death of Solomon to the overthrow of the independence of both branches of the Hebrew nation, about four hundred years, the Jews do not seem to have made much progress. They certainly made no impression upon the outside world. It was a constant warfare between monotheism and polytheism. The people seemed to be infatuated with other religions, and in perpetual peril of losing their peculiar ideas, and of merging in the common herd of idolatry. But captivity in Babylon cured them of all disposition to forsake Jehovah. This was a very remarkable fact, quite inexplicable, indeed; but whatever the reason, it is certain that those Jews who returned from the captivity were cured of all leaning towards other gods. A few of the older people could remember the old city of Jerusalem with its magnificent temple, and the horrors of the siege, the relentless cruelty of Nebuchadnezzar, and the sins for which the people were punished. But for the most part, all was new to the restored people. It is thought by many that the Jews had no literature before this time, that the history, laws, and poetry of the nation had been preserved and handed down orally, but this is not probable. It is no doubt true, however, that contact for two generations with the learned and polished Babylonians, had been of incalculable advantage to them, and very likely portions of the history were written for the first time by Ezra, the scribe. His name is borne by only one book, and several books are anonymous. He may have written those, and edited new editions, as we say, of all the Hebrew literature of that date, and all but a few of the minor prophets antedated Ezra.

Several of the books of the Bible relate to the captivity and the restoration, after which the Biblical record is almost silent. Those of the minor prophets, which belong to the later period, throw very little historical light. It was in B. C. 536, that the Hebrews were authorized by Cyrus to return to Judea, and many of them did return under the leadership of Zerubbabel. They formed a Persian province or satrapy, and so remained for over two hundred years, the high priests being allowed to act as governors, usually. The yoke of Persia was light. Alexander the Great received the submission of Jerusalem, and after his death Ptolemy Soter took the city, carrying away one hundred thousand captives. Henceforth, until the Romans came into possession of it, Judea was the prey

of rival powers, now Egypt and now Syria. Antiochus and the Ptolemies coveted it, and each thought they had a claim upon it. In B. C. 169, Antiochus Epiphanes of Syria took and plundered the city of Jerusalem, massacred vast numbers of the people, and desecrated the holy places. The sacrilege even more than the cruelties of the Syrian despoilers aroused the national indignation.

The Maccabean wars followed, in which the Jews under the Maccabees showed great heroism and valor. Under Judas Maccabees, favorable terms of peace were secured, lasting, however, only a short time. The Syrian power was irresistible by the Jews. When (B. C. 63) Pompey the Great demanded the submission of the Jews to Roman sway he was hailed as a deliverer. But a few years later another Roman, Crassus, plundered the temple, robbing it of vast treasures. Troublous times again prevailed. The Asmodean family ruled as subject kings, and had done so for over one hundred years; but in B. C. 37, Herod led a Roman army in an assault upon Jerusalem for the avowed purpose of dethroning the ruling dynasty. A bloody massacre followed. Herod was successful. This inhuman tyrant died in B. C. 3, and his successor, Archelaus, was the Herod who slaughtered the innocents, in the fiendish hope of killing the infant Jesus. In A. D. 6, he was banished for his cruelties. Then the scepter departed from Judea, and the next ruler was a Roman Procurator. Among the latter rulers was Pontius Pilate. In A. D. 37, Agrippa was made king of Judea, but upon his death, seven years later, the pro-consul of Syria had Judea within his jurisdiction, and it has been a part of Syria ever since.



Jerusalem, from Mount of Olives.

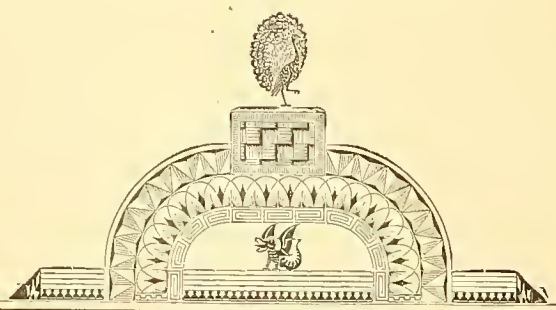
In A. D. 66, a rebellion broke out against Roman authority in Cæsarea, a city established by the Romans among the Jews. Vespasian marched 60,000 soldiers into Judea to quell the uprising. After two years of ineffectual warfare hostilities were suspended until A. D. 70, when Titus, the son of Vespasian (the latter being then Emperor of Rome) laid siege to the city, and after a desperate resistance took it. So stubborn had been the defense that Titus determined to destroy the Jews, root and branch. He razed their sacred city to the

ground and dispersed the people. From this time on they have been a nation without a country.

The history of the Jews in dispersion is the story of cruelty and injustice carried to the utmost verge. Rome persecuted them because they were such rigid adherents to the worship of Jehovah, to the exclusion of all other deities. It was the custom to deify the dead emperors, and pay to them certain homage, which to a Hebrew would be idolatry. To the Roman government, refusal to worship as prescribed by the authorities was treason. The Jews were free to worship their own God in their own way, and the Roman mind could not see why they should object to paying the prescribed respect to the memory of deceased emperors. Out of this state of affairs grew bloody persecutions which continued down to the days of Constantine. The Christians could appreciate the conscientious scruples of the Hebrews. Indeed, they shared them, and were herein on a common level with them. They, too, had been persecuted much and often for refusal to conform to the religious requirements of the State. But none the less, they proved more cruel in their treatment of the Jews than the pagans had. It was for a very different reason. Instead of being very grateful to them for being the "peculiar people" from whom they had derived their sacred book, their Deity and their Savior, the Christians seemed only to remember that Jesus Christ was crucified at the instigation of a Jewish mob. That all the patriarchs, prophets and apostles from Abraham to Paul were Jews, and even the Lord himself, had no mollifying influence. All through the ages the Jews were persecuted by the Christians, and in this day there is a strong popular prejudice against them all over Christendom, on account of one act of mob violence.

There has been a gradual improvement in public sentiment towards the Jews, and for the most part the laws discriminating against them have been repealed. The progress made by them in attaining the front rank in all the higher walks of life is phenomenal. They hold the purse-strings of commerce and finance generally, to such an extent that they may be called the bankers of the world. There are a great many Rothschilds on a smaller, yet large scale. In music the Hebrew genius has excelled. In statecraft the children of Israel are pre-eminent. In every civilized and half-civilized land they are a nation within a nation, a people within a people, neither seeking nor allowing assimilation with their neighbors. There are no indications of any tendency toward Gentilism.

It may be added that since the rod of oppression has been broken, the Israelites show no longing to return to Palestine. On the contrary, they have a keen scent for any land "flowing with milk and honey," offering good opportunities for business, and modern Canaan is sterile and uninviting. Originally shepherds, then slaves in brick-kilns, later farmers, they are now wholly given to traffic and all the different phases of exchange, with every trace of the agriculturist obliterated from the national character. It has been justly observed by a modern Hebrew writer that "the majority of intelligent Israelites in the present have long since abandoned the work of building up an independent national existence of their own. Their patriotism has been illustrated upon all the great battlefields of this century. The achievement of higher conditions of human life they are disposed to regard as the fulfillment of Messianic prophecy, and the furthering of this end in intimate union with their fellowmen as the highest dictate of their religion." To the United States government is due the high honor of being the first Christian nation to accord the Jews absolutely full and equal rights before the law, and the example of this nation was eminently helpful to them in securing their rights in other lands.



HEBREW LITERATURE AND SECTS.

CHAPTER XI.

THE INTANGIBLE IN JEWISH HISTORY—THE HEBREW BIBLE—THE SEPTUAGINT—THE TALMUD—SADDUCEES AND PHARISEES—ESSENES—TESTIMONY OF PLINY—PHILO ON THE ESSENES—JOSEPHUS ON JEWISH SECTS—THE CHASIDIM—FELIX ADLER ON THE JEWS IN LITERATURE AND OF TO-DAY.

THE chapter immediately preceding the present one was devoted to the outward facts of Jewish history, omitting such details as belong more appropriately in the tabular statements yet to be made, also reserving for a later chapter Christ and Christianity. The Founder of our religion was indeed a Jew by nativity, but he was also a part of the Roman Empire. The Jews have been and are a mighty power in the world, apart from their nationality and the religion which has been adopted by the civilized world. Judaism must be classed among the supreme forces of mankind. One might be entirely familiar with Biblical and Christian history without forming anything like an adequate conception of Jewish influence upon the general course of events. While this volume may well pass by many important matters, upon the supposition that the reader will consult his Bible for details of Hebraic history, there are phases of the case which serve to explain the otherwise inexplicable potency of the Hebrew nation upon which the sacred record throws but very little light. This class of facts will occupy our main attention in this connection. But upon the threshold of our present subject is the book of books—the Bible.

The Old Testament is held in equal reverence by Jews and Christians. In each of those great churches some hold that volume to be the word of God in the fullest sense, while others see in it simply the most important part of the literature of a remarkable people. The Old Testament, as it is held by Protestants, consists of thirty-nine books, originally written in Hebrew. Their age is uncertain in many cases. The oldest manuscript of the Old Testament which is now known dates from 1106. It is the opinion of many learned scholars that the laws, history and poetry of the Jews were never reduced to writing until after the Captivity. Others again, contend that Moses left behind him a body of laws, and a history up to date, to which anonymous writers added from time to time, and this latter theory is more consistent with the representations of the Bible itself and with what is known of the Jewish people.

Among the literary treasures of Alexandria was a translation into Greek of the Hebrew Bible. It is known as the Septuagint, from the tradition that the translation was the work of seventy persons. The quotations in the New Testament were made, as internal evidence proves, from that rather than from any original version. It varies only slightly from the Hebrew text.

Next in rank to the Bible stands, in Jewish

estimation, the Talmud. This is a library in itself, composed by many writers through a long period of time, covering the entire range of Hebrew thought, spiritual and secular, with some grotesque attempts at science. For many centuries it has served as an authority upon all matters of faith and religious practice among the Jews, and the great business of the educated priesthood was to ascertain and make known the contents of the Talmud. It has been compared to an ocean which only an expert mariner could navigate, and on which the unskillful and inexperienced would be lost. As a bond of national union the Talmud has been a great power among the Jews in the dispersion and persecution.

In all the record, from Genesis to Malachi, one finds no indications of sectarianism. In the New Testament we are confronted with Pharisees and Sadducees indulging in all the rancor of sectarian animosity. These sects seem to have come into existence between the Restoration ordered by Cyrus and the subjugation by Rome. The Sadducees were very conservative, tenacious for the laws and regulations of Moses, suspicious of any and every thing not distinctly based on the Pentateuch. The Pharisees were more inclined to adapt Mosaic ideas to current opinions. In time they came to substitute traditions not only for the more ancient law, but for the more modern thought. In the days of our Savior the chief difference between these sects was on the doctrine of the resurrection and immortality. The Sadducees rejected both, finding no warrant for either in the books of Moses, while the Pharisees accepted and taught both, finding nothing against either in Moses or the other prophets. Jesus was outspoken in criticism of both, but on their cardinal point of difference he was a Pharisee. The same was true of Paul, and all the early fathers. Indeed, so integral is the doctrine of immortality to the Christian idea of religion that it is difficult to understand how a sect which rejected that doctrine could be religious at all, and especially how it could be ranked as the conservative or orthodox branch of the church. It may be said that Christianity has never been Sadducaical, but the Jews, as a general thing, are, and Pharisaism (using the term in no offensive sense) is a part of Christianity.

Another sect of the Jews, not mentioned in the Bible, and long neglected, is deserving of far more attention. We refer to the Essenes. That brilliant essayist, De Quincey, had the temerity to pronounce this sect a myth, or rather, a sort of forgery. He may have been sincere, although this is open to doubt. However that may be, the hypothesis is simply preposterous. There are three distinct and original sources of Essenic information, namely, Pliny, Philo, and Josephus. They are not entirely harmonious, but differ only as it would be natural for three writers to differ who had widely distant points of observation. Josephus, being a Jew who resided in Jerusalem, had the best means of information; Pliny, who merely crossed the country, the least; Philo was an Alexandrian Jew. Pliny, the elder, born in Verona twenty-three years after the Christian era began, wrote in his natural history this passage:

"Lying to the West of Aspeltetes, and sufficiently distant to escape its noxious exhalations, are the Esseni, a people that live apart from the world, and marvelous above all others throughout the whole earth, for they have no women among them; to sexual desire they are strangers; money they have none; the palm-trees are their only companions. Day after day, however, their numbers are fully recruited by multitudes of strangers which resort to them, driven thither to adopt their usages by the tempests of fortune, and wearied with the miseries of life. And thus it is that through thousands of ages, incredible to relate, this people eternally prolonged their existence without a single birth taking place there, so fruitful a source of population to it is that weariness of life which is felt by others."

Except as to the antiquity of the sect, Pliny's idea of it was substantially correct.

Philo's account is as follows:

"Our lawgiver trained an innumerable body of his pupils to partake of these things, being, as I imagine, honored with the appellation of Essenes because of their exceeding holiness. And they dwell in many cities of Judea, and in many villages, and in great and populous communities. And this sect is not an hereditary or family connection; for family ties are not spoken of with reference to acts voluntarily performed, but it is adopted on account of their admiration for virtue and love of gentleness and humanity. At all events, there are no children among the Essenes: no, nor any youths or persons only just

entering upon manhood. Since the dispositions of all such persons are unstable and liable to changes from the imperfections incident to their age, but they are all full-grown men, and even already declining toward old age. Such as are no longer carried away by the impetuosity of their bodily passions, and are not under the influence of the appetites, but such as enjoy a genuine freedom, the only true and real liberty. And a proof of this is to be found in their life of perfect freedom.

"No one among them ventures at all to acquire any property whatever of his own, neither house nor slave, nor farm, nor flocks, nor herds, nor anything of any sort which can be looked upon as the fountain or provision of riches, but they bring them together into the middle as a common stock and enjoy one common, general benefit from it all.

"And they all dwell in the same place, making clubs, and societies, and combinations, and unions with one another, and doing everything throughout their whole lives with reference to the general advantage; but the different members of this body have different employments in which they occupy themselves and labor without hesitation or cessation, making no mention of either cold or heat or any change of temperature as an excuse for desisting from their tasks. But before the sun rises they betake themselves to their daily work, and they do not quit it until some time after it has set, when they return home rejoicing no less than those who have been exercising themselves in gymnastic contests; for they imagine that whatever they devote themselves to as a practice is a sort of gymnastic exercise of more advantage to life and more pleasant to both soul and body, and of more enduring benefit and equability, than mere athletic labors, inasmuch as such toil does not cease to be practiced with delight when the age of vigor of body has passed, for there are some of them who are devoted to the practice of agriculture, being skillful in such things as the sowing and cultivating of lands; others again, are shepherds or cowherds, and experienced in the management of every kind of animal; some are cunning in what relates to swarms of bees; others again are artisans and handicraftsmen, in order to guard against suffering from want of anything of which there is at times an actual need; and these men omit and delay nothing which is requisite to the innocent supply of the necessaries of life.

"Accordingly, each of these men who differ so widely in respective employments, when they have received their wages, give them up to one person who is appointed as the universal steward and general manager, and he, when he has received the money, immediately goes and purchases what is necessary, and furnishes with food in abundance, and all other things of which the life of man stands in need. And those who live together and eat at the same table day after day, contented with the same things, being lovers of frugality and moderation, and averse to all sumptuousness and extravagance as being a disease of both body and mind. Not only are their tables in common, but all their dress, for in the winter there are thick cloaks found, and in the summer light, cheap mantles, so that whoever wants one is at liberty, without restraint, to go and take whichever kind he chooses, since what belongs to one belongs to all, and on the other hand, whatever belongs to all belongs to each individual.

"And again, if any one of them is sick, he is cured from the common resources, being attended by the general care and anxiety of the whole body. Accordingly the old men, even if they happen to be childless, as if they were not only the fathers of many children, but were even also particularly happy in an affectionate offspring, are accustomed to end their lives in a most happy and prosperous and carefully attended old age; being looked upon by such a number of people as worthy of so much honor and provident regard that they think themselves bound to care for them even more from inclination than any tie of natural affection.

"Again, perceiving with more than ordinary acuteness and accuracy what is alone, or at least above all other things, calculated to dissolve such associations, they repudiate marriage, and at the same time they practice continence to an eminent degree; for no one of the Essenes ever marries a wife, because woman is a selfish creature, and one addicted to jealousy in an immoderate degree, and terribly calculated to agitate and overturn the natural inclinations of a man, and to mislead him by her continual tricks; for as she is always studying deceitful speeches and all kinds of hypocrisy, like an actress on the stage, when she is alluring the eyes and ears of her husband, she proceeds to cajole his predominant mind after the servants have been deceived.

"And again, if there are children, she becomes full

of pride and all kinds of license in her speech, and all the obscure sayings which she previously meditated in irony, in a disguised manner, she now begins to utter with an audacious confidence, and becoming utterly shameless, she proceeds to violence, and does numbers of actions of which every one is hostile to such association; for the man who is bound under the influence of the charms of a woman, or of children by the necessary ties of nature, being overwhelmed by the impulses of affection, is no longer the same person towards others, but is entirely changed, having, without being aware of it, become a slave instead of a freeman.

"This now is the enviable system of life of these Essenes, so that not only private individuals, but even mighty kings, admiring the men, venerate the sect and increase their dignity and majesty in a still higher degree by their approbation and by the honors which they confer on them."

The foregoing extract is a fragment of the lost works of Philo, preserved by the historian of the primitive church, Eusebius. It may be found in the fourth volume of Yonge's translation of Philo's works. The following excerpt is from Philo's essay on "The Virtuous being also Free":

"Among the Persians is the body of the Magi [called in the gospel 'wise men of the East']. Moreover, Palestine and Syria too are not barren of exemplary wisdom and virtue, which country no slight portion of that populous people, the Jews, inhabit. There is a portion of that people called Essenes, in number something more than four thousand, in my opinion, who derive their name from their piety, though not according to any accurate form of the Greek dialect, because they are, above all men, devoted to the service of God, not sacrificing living animals, but studying rather to preserve their own minds in a state of holiness and piety. These men, in the first place, live in villages, avoiding cities on account of the habitual lawlessness of those who inhabit them, well knowing that such a moral disease is contact with wicked men, just as a real disease might be from an impure atmosphere, and that this would stamp an incurable disease upon their souls. Of these men some cultivate the earth, and others, devoting themselves to those arts which are the results of peace, benefit both themselves and all who come in contact with them, not storing up treasures of silver and gold, nor acquiring vast sections of earth out of a desire for ample revenue, but providing all things which are requisite for the natural purposes of life; for they alone of almost all men, having been originally poor and destitute, and that, too, from their habits and ways of life, rather than from any real deficiency of good fortune, are nevertheless accounted very rich, judging contentment and frugality great abundance, as in truth they are.

"Among those men you will find no makers of armors or javelins or swords or helmets or breastplates or shields; or makers of arms or military engines; no one, in short, attending to any employment whatever connected with war, or even to any of those occupations, even in peace, which are easily perverted to wicked purposes; for they are utterly ignorant of all traffic, and of all commercial dealings, and of all navigation, but they repudiate and keep aloof from all that can possibly afford any inducement to covetousness; and there is exercise to train them toward its attainment all praiseworthy actions by which a freedom which can never be enslaved is firmly established.

"And a proof of this is that though at different times a great number of chiefs of every variety of disposition and character have occupied their country, some of whom have endeavored to surpass even ferocious wild beasts in cruelty, leaving no sort of inhumanity unpracticed, and have never ceased to murder their subjects in whole troops, and have even torn them to pieces, while living, like cooks, cutting them limb from limb, till they themselves being overtaken by vengeance of Divine justice, have at last experienced the same misery in their turn; others again having converted their barbarian frenzy into another kind of wickedness, practiced an ineffable degree of savageness, talking with the people quietly, but through the hypocrisy of a more gentle voice, betraying the ferocity of their real dispositions, fawning upon their victims like treacherous dogs, and becoming the cause of irremediable miseries to them, have left in all their cities monuments of their impiety, and hatred of all mankind, in the never-to-be-forgotten miseries endured by those whom they oppressed; yet no one, not even of those immoderate tyrants, nor of the more treacherous and hypocritical oppressors, was ever able to bring any real accusation against the multitudes of those called Essenes, or Holy. But every one being subdued by the virtue of these men, looked up to

them as free by nature, and not subject to the frown of any human being, and have celebrated their manner of messing together, and their fellowship with one another beyond all description in respect of its mutual good faith, which is ample proof of a perfect and very happy life."

Without pausing for any comment, we append now what Josephus says in his brief epitome of the three sects of the Jews:

"There were three sects among the Jews who had different opinions concerning human actions. One was called the sect of the Pharisees; another the sect of the Sadducees; and still another the sect of the Essenes. Now for the Pharisees, they say that some actions, but not all, are the work of fate, and some of them are in our own power, and that they are liable to fate without being caused by fate. But the sect of the Essenes affirms that fate governs all things and that nothing befalls men except with its determination. And for the Sadducees, they take away fate, and say that there is no such thing, and that the events of human affairs are not at its disposal, but they suppose that all our actions are within our own power, so that we are ourselves the cause of what is good, and receive what is evil from our own folly."

This brief and metaphysical comparison of the sects is found in the thirteenth book and fifth chapter of the Antiquities. But it is not all Josephus has to say on the subject. On the contrary, after a digression, he devotes considerable space to the subject, and with that extended passage closes the full presentation of the original sources of Essenic information. This final excerpt is as follows:

"For there are three sects among the Jews, the followers of the first of which are the Pharisees, the second the Sadducees, and the third sect, which pretends to a severer discipline, are called Essenes. These last are Jews by birth and seem to have greater affection for one another than the other sects have. These Essenes reject pleasures as an evil, but esteem continence and the conquest over our passions as a virtue. They neglect wedlock, but choose out other persons' children while they are pliable and fit for learning, and esteem them to be of their kindred, and form them according to their own manners. They do not absolutely deny the fitness of marriage, and the succession of mankind thereby continued; but they guard against the lascivious behavior of women, and are persuaded that none of them preserve their fidelity to one man.

"These men are despisers of riches, and so very communistic as raises our admiration. Nor is there any one to be found among them who hath more than another; for it is a law among them that those who come to them must let what they have be common to the whole order, insomuch that among them all there is no appearance of poverty or excess of riches, but every one's possessions are intermingled with every other's possessions, and so there is, as it were, one patrimony among all the brethren. They think that oil is a defilement, and if any of them be anointed without his approbation it is wiped off his body; for they think to be sweaty is a good thing, as they do also to be clothed in white garments. They also have stewards appointed to take care of their common affairs, who every one of them has no separate business for any, but what is for the use of them all.

"They have no one certain city, but many of them dwell in every city; and if any of their sect come from another place, what they have lies open for them, just as if it were their own; and they go in to such as they never knew before as if they had been ever so long acquainted with them; for which reason they carry nothing at all with them when they travel into remote parts, though still they take their weapons with them for fear of thieves. Accordingly, there is in every city where they live, one appointed particularly to take care of strangers and to provide garments and other necessaries for them. But the habit and management of their bodies is such as children use when they are afraid of masters; nor do they allow the change of garments or of shoes until they be first entirely torn to pieces or worn out by time. Nor do they either buy or sell anything to one another, but every one gives what he hath to him that wants it, and receives from him in turn of it what may be convenient for himself; and although there be no requital made, they are freely allowed to take whatsoever they want of whomsoever they please.

"And as for their piety towards God, it is very extraordinary; for before sunrise they speak not a word about profane matters, but put up certain prayers, which they have received from their forefathers, as if they made supplication to the sun for rising. After this, every one of them is sent away

by their curators to exercise some of those arts wherein they are skilled, in which they labor with great diligence until the fifth hour; after which they assemble themselves together again in one place, and when they have clothed themselves in white veils, they then bathe their bodies in cold water. And after this purification is over, they every one meet together in an apartment of their own into which it is not permitted to any one of another sect to enter, while they go, after a pure manner, into the dining-room as into a certain holy temple, and quietly sit themselves down, upon which the baker lays their loaves in order; the cook also brings a single plate of one sort of food, and sets it before every one of them: but a priest says grace before meat, and it is unlawful for any one to taste food before grace be said. The same priest, when he hath dined, says grace again after meat; and when they begin and when they end, they praise God as He that hath bestowed food upon them; after which they lay aside their white garments and betake themselves to their labors again until the evening; then they return home to supper after the same manner, and if there be any strangers there they sit down with them. Nor is there ever any clamor or disturbance to pollute their house, but they give every one leave to speak in their turn; which silence thus kept in their houses appears to foreigners like some tremendous mystery; the cause of which is that perpetual sobriety they exercise; and the same settled measure of meat and drink that is allowed them, and that such as is abundantly sufficient for them.

"And truly, as for other things, they do nothing but according to the injunctions of their curators; only these two things are done among them at their own free will, which are to assist those that want it, and to show mercy; for they are permitted of their own accord to afford succor to those that are in distress; but they cannot give anything to their kindred without the curators. They dispense their anger after a just manner and restrain their passion. They are eminent for fidelity and are the ministers of peace. Whatever they say also is firmer than an oath, but swearing is avoided by them, and they esteem it worse than perjury, for they say that he who cannot be believed without swearing by God is already condemned. They also take great pains in studying the writings of the ancients, and choose out of them what is most to the advantage of their soul and body, and they inquire after such roots and medicinal stones as may cure their distempers.

"But now, if any one hath a mind to come over to their sect, he is not immediately admitted, but he is prescribed the same method of living which they use, for a year, while he continues excluded, and they give him also a small hatchet and the forementioned girdle and the white garment. And when he hath given evidence during that time that he can observe their continence, he approaches nearer to their way of living, and is made a partaker of the waters of purification; yet is he not even now permitted to live with them, for after this demonstration of his fortitude, his temper is tried two more years, and if he appear to be worthy, they then admit him into their society. And before he is allowed to touch their common food, he is obliged to take tremendous oaths that in the first place he will practice piety toward God, and then that he will observe justice toward men, and that he will do no harm to any one, either of his own accord or at the command of any one; that he will always hate the wicked and be assistant to the good; that he will ever show fidelity to all men, and especially to those in authority, because no one obtains the government without God's assistance, and that if he be in authority he will at no time abuse his authority, nor endeavor to outshine his subjects either in his garments or in any other finery; that he will be perpetually a lover of truth and propose to himself to reprove those who tell lies; that he will keep his hands clean from theft and his soul from unlawful gains; and that he will neither conceal anything from those of his own sect nor discover any of their doctrines to others; no, not though any one should compel him to do so at the hazard of his life. Moreover, he swears to communicate their doctrines to no one otherwise than as he receives them himself; that he will abstain from robbery, and will equally preserve the books belonging to their sect and the names of the angels [or messengers]. These are the oaths by which they secure their proselytes to themselves.

"But for those that are caught in any heinous sins, they cast them out of their society, and he who is thus separated from them does often die after a miserable manner, for as he is bound by the oath he has taken, and by the custom he hath engaged in, he is not at liberty to partake of that food that he

meets with elsewhere, but is forced to eat grass and famish his body with hunger until he perish, for which reason they receive many of them again, and when they are at their last gasp, out of compassion to them, as thinking the miseries they have endured until they came to the brink of death to be sufficient punishment for the sins they had been guilty of.

"But in the judgments they exercise they are most accurate and just, nor do they pass sentence by the vote of a court that is fewer than a hundred. And as to what is determined by that number, it is unalterable. What they most of all honor, after the name of God himself, is the legislator Moses, whom if any one blaspheme he is punished capitally. They also think it a good thing to obey their elders and the majority. Accordingly, if ten of them be sitting together, no one of them will speak while the other nine are against it. They also avoid spitting in the midst of them or on the right side. Moreover, they are stricter than another of the Jews in resting from their labors on the seventh day, for they not only get their food ready the day before, that they may not be obliged to kindle a fire on that day, but will not remove any vessel out of its place, or go to stool thereon; nay, on the other days they dig a small pit a foot deep with a paddle (which kind of hatchet is given them when they are first admitted among them) and covering themselves round with their garments that they may not affront the divine rays of light, they ease themselves into that pit; after which they put the earth that was dug out into the pit, and even this they do only in the more lonely places which they choose out for this purpose; and although this easement of the body be natural, yet it is a rule with them to wash themselves after it as if it were a defilement to them. Now after the time of their preparatory trial is over, they are parted into four classes, and so far are the juniors inferior to the seniors, that if the seniors should be touched by the juniors, they must wash themselves, as if they had intermixed themselves with foreigners. They are long-lived also, insomuch that many of them live above a hundred years, by means of the simplicity of their diet; nay, as I think, by means of the regular course of life they observe also. They contemn the miseries of life, and are above pain by the generosity of their minds. And as for death, if it be for them glory, they esteem it better than living always; and indeed our war with the Romans gave abundant evidence what great souls they had, in their trials, wherein they were tortured and distorted, burnt and torn to pieces, and went through all kinds of instruments of torment, that they might be forced either to blaspheme their legislator, or to eat what was forbidden them; no, nor once to flatter their tormentors, or to shed a tear; but they smiled in their very pains, and laughed those to scorn who inflicted the torments upon them, and resigned up their souls with great alacrity, as expecting to receive them again.

"For their doctrine is this, that the matter they are made of is not permanent, but that the souls are immortal and continue forever; and that they come out of the most subtile air, and are united to their bodies as to prisons, into which they are drawn by a certain natural enticement; but that when they are set free from the bonds of the flesh, that then they, as released from a long bondage, rejoice and mount upward. And this is like the opinion of the Greeks, that good souls have their habitations beyond the ocean, in a region which is neither oppressed with storms of rain or snow or intense heat; but that this place is such as is refreshed by the gentle breathing of the west wind that is perpetually blowing from the ocean; while they allot to bad souls a dark and tempestuous den, full of never-ceasing punishment. And indeed, the Greeks seem to have followed the same notion when they allot the islands of the blessed to their brave men, whom they call heroes and demigods, and to the souls of the wicked the region of the ungodly in Hades, where their fables relate that certain persons, as Sisyphus and Tantalus and Ixion and Tityus are punished, which is built on this first supposition that souls are immortal: and thence are those exhortations to virtue and dehortations from wickedness collected whereby good men are bettered in the conduct of their life by the hope of reward after death, and whereby the inherent inclinations of bad men to vice are restrained by the fear and expectation they are in, that although they should lie concealed in this life, they should suffer immortal punishment after their death. These are the divine doctrines of the Essenes about the soul, which lay an unavoidable bait for such as have once had a taste of their philosophy.

"There are also those among them who undertake to tell things to come by reading the holy

books, and using several sorts of purifications, and being perpetually conversant in the discourses of the prophets; and it is but seldom that they miss in their predictions.

"Moreover, there is another order of Essenes, who agree with the rest in their every way of living and customs and laws, but differ from them in the point of marriage, as thinking that by not marrying they cut off the principal part of human life, which is the prospect of succession; nay, rather that if all men should keep the same opinion, the whole race of mankind would fail. However, they try their spouses for three years, and if they find they have their natural purgations thrice, as trials that they are likely to be fruitful, they then actually marry them. But they do not use to accompany with their wives when they are with child, as a demonstration that they do not marry out of regard to pleasure, but for the sake of posterity. Now the women go into the baths with some of their garments on, as the men do with somewhat girded about them. And these are the customs of this order of Essenes.

"But then, as to the two other orders first mentioned, the Pharisees are those who are esteemed most skillful in the exact explication of their laws, and introduce the first sect. These ascribe all to fate [or Providence] and to God, and yet allow that to act what is right, or the contrary, is principally in the power of men, although fate does cooperate in every action. They say that all the souls are incompatible, but that the souls of good men only are removed into other bodies, but that the souls of bad men are subject to eternal punishment. But the Sadducees are those that compose the second order, and take away fate entirely, and suppose that God is not concerned in our doing or not doing what is evil; and they say that to act what is good or what is evil is at man's own choice, and that the one and the other belong so to every one that he may act as he pleases. They also take away belief in the immortal duration of the soul, and the punishments and rewards in Hades. Moreover, the Pharisees are friendly to one another and are for the exercise of concord and regard for the public; but the behavior of the Sadducees one toward another is in some degree wild, and their conversation with those who are of their own party is as barbarous as if they were strangers to them. And this is what I had to say concerning the philosophical sects among the Jews."

At the risk of being somewhat tedious, we have presented absolutely all that is known of the sect of Jews whose peculiarities are most strikingly suggestive of Christianity. In these strangely neglected excerpts may be found a key to much which would otherwise be inexplicable in the connection of Judaism with the religion of modern Europe.

The Chasidim is a modern sect of Jews. It is numerous among Polish, Hungarian and Russian Jews, but almost unknown elsewhere. It is fanatical in the extreme, and abject in subservience to the priests. The Chasidim have been compared to the Shakers in their eccentric religious practices.

The most important sect of to-day is the Karaites, (sons of scripture) dating from the early part of the middle ages. Once powerful, their numbers are now insignificant, their importance growing out of their intellectual history. Rejecting the Talmud, they ever strenuously maintained the sole authority of "Moses and the Prophets." They were noted in a period of general darkness for literary and scientific activity. Their literature has been lost, in large part, but very much still remains, a proud monument to the intellectual capacity of the Hebrew nation. At present the Karaites are almost extinct, except as found in the Crimea, where they are protected and prosperous. Formerly they were doubly persecuted, the Christians hating them the same as any other Jews, and the Rabbinical or orthodox Jews seeing in them heretics worse than "Christian dogs."

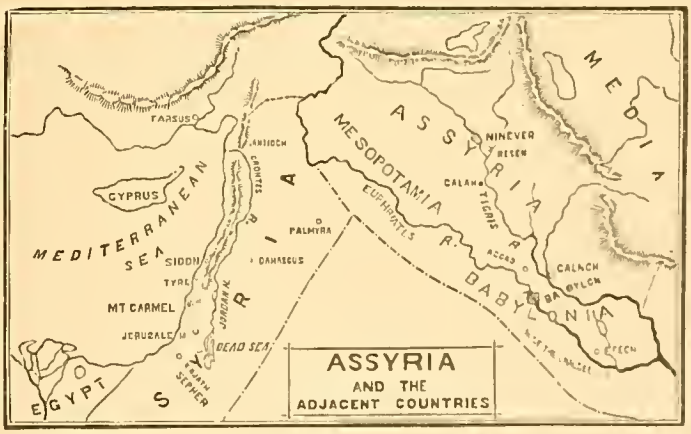
In discussing the Jews and their place in history, Felix Adler remarks: "Not only has their own literature been opened to scientific study by such men as Zunz, Geiger, Munk, Rappoport, Luzzato, and others, but they have rendered signal service in almost every department of science and art. I mention among the Philosophers, M. Mendelssohn, Maimon Herz; in political economy, Ricardo and LaSalle; in literature, Borne, Heine, Auerbach, Grace Aguilar; in music, Mendelssohn, Bartholdy, Meyerbeer, Halevy; among the prominent statesmen of the day, Disraeli, Lasker, Cremieux,"—and, he might have added, Gambetta.

ASSYRIA AND SYRIA.

CHAPTER XII.

ASSYRIAN ANTIQUITY—NINUS AND SEMIRAMIS—SENACHERIB AND SARDANAPALIS—DESCRIPTION OF NINEVEH—CLAY LIBRARIES—BABYLON; ITS HANGING GARDENS AND TEMPLE OF BELUS—BABYLONIAN HISTORY—ALEXANDER AND BABYLON—RECENT ARCHÆOLOGICAL DISCOVERIES—SYRIA IN ITS FIRST PERIOD—SYRIA UNDER THE SELUCIDÆ—MODERN SYRIA AND SYRIAC.

ACCORDING to Hebraic history, the primitive kingdom of the world was Assyria. Nimrod was the first to establish monarchy in the place of the patriarchal form of government, and of the cities having a place in history, Nineveh was the first. That city and Babylon, among the most memorable in antiquity, both belonged to Assyria. That kingdom is supposed to have been formed about two thousand and two hundred years before our present era. Assyria proper corresponded very nearly to the present Koordistan. The term, however, has been used in a loose way to apply to a vast and shifting area in the vicinity of the Euphrates and the Tigris. The name itself is derived from Asshur, a son of Shem, and the chief god of the Assyrian idolatry. There are archæological reasons for supposing that the Assyrians were Semites. Their features in sculpture are Jewish and Arabic in resemblance.



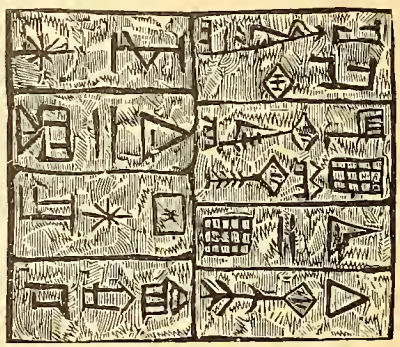
Ninus is the name of one of the early and more illustrious of the Assyrian kings. He was, perhaps, the founder of Nineveh, the previous capital being now lost entirely. If history and tradition do not slander him, this king, like the "sweet singer of Israel," was guilty of the monstrous crime of choosing for the favorite of his harem the wife of one of his brave soldiers. It is not charged that the Assyrian monarch caused the death of the despoiled husband. This Bathsheba of Nineveh was the famous Semiramis, long one of the more august figures in history. Recent research has greatly dimmed the luster of her renown, or rather, cast suspicion upon

the flattering accounts of early historians. But if the latter may be at all trusted, she was indeed a helpmeet to Ninus during his life, accompanying him in war, and counseling with him at all times on all matters of state. When he died Semiramis assumed the administration as regent. To her Assyria is said to owe Babylon. If so, she, not Nebuchadnezzar, could truthfully say, "Behold, is not this great Babylon which I have builded." Under her it became great and metropolitan, but not the capital. She was a woman of war, and is represented by Herodotus as having "led her conquering legions far and near."

The next Assyrian monarch of renown was Senacherib, who began to reign about 700 B. C. He fought successfully with the Egyptians, the Israelites and the Philistines. It was by his father, Sargon, that Babylon was made a part of Assyria, and it was by Senacherib that the captivity of the ten tribes was effected. The number of the captives is computed at 200,000. He built a most superb palace in Nineveh which Layard has unearthed in its ruins. Nineveh reached the culmination of its architectural glory in the first half of the seventh century. It was near the close of this century (the exact date is unknown) that it was destroyed. The governor of the province of Babylon, assisted by the Scythian hordes from the North, captured and destroyed it. The last king of Nineveh was Sardanapalus, renowned (whether justly or not is open to dispute) for effeminacy. He was wholly abandoned to the pleasures of the seraglio. When besieged in his capital, he is said to have raised a huge funeral pyre, placed his numerous wives and costly treasures upon it, and then with his own hand applied the torch. This done, he mounted the pile himself, and fittingly perished. With him the Empire of Assyria went down forever and Nineveh became a ruin. The scepter of empire passed to Babylon.

Nineveh was on the Tigris distant nearly three hundred miles from Babylon. It was more than a city in the ordinary sense of the term. It was a collection of fields as well as houses, designed to be a walled community, capable of withstanding any and every kind of siege. It was fifteen miles long and nine miles wide. It is believed that the houses were built separately, and each had very considerable ground. The walls were two hundred feet high, and so wide that three chariots driven abreast could pass along the top. Making all due allowance for extravagance of statement, it is certain that Nineveh was a very marvelous city.

The clay of that region made excellent bricks. Early the art of writing was introduced and the potter was the publisher of that day and land. The soft bricks were indented with the words of the author, and then those manuscript bricks were *kilned* and thus preserved. Of late years vast quantities of these earthen books have been brought to light, and many of them translated. For historical purposes they are not very satisfactory, mythological creations being so interwoven with actual fact as to defy critical dissection.

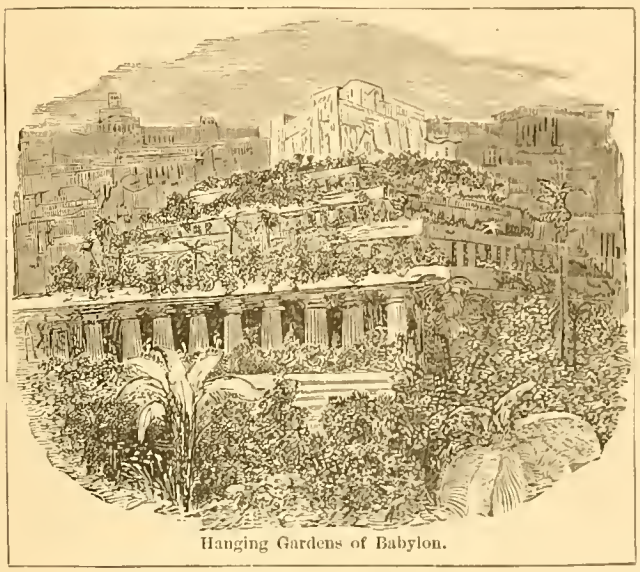


Chaldean Bricks.

In the plain of Shinar, about sixty miles south of Bagdad, where now stands the little village of Hillah, once stood the magnificent Babylon, the metropolis of Chaldea. It was about fourteen miles in extent on each of its four sides. The river Euphrates ran through it. Rawlinson believes it to have been the most magnificent city of the old world. Isaiah calls it "the glory of kingdoms, the beauty of the Chaldee's excellency." Its most notable feature, accounted one of the seven wonders of the world, was the series of so-called hanging gardens within its walls. Those gardens consisted of terraces raised one above the other to an immense height on pillars, well floored with cement and lead, and covered with earth in which the most beautiful shrubs and trees were planted. Immemorial in its origin, the city was completed by Nebuchadnezzar of Biblical fame. It was a brick city, naphtha and bitumen taking the place of lime. The most remarkable structure of Babylon was the temple of Belus. The following is the description of it: "The temple of Belus was, at its foundation, a furlong in length, and about the same in breadth; its height is said to have exceeded six hundred feet, which is more than that of the Egyptian pyramids. It was built in eight stories, gradually

diminishing in size as they ascended. Instead of stairs, there was a sloping terrace on the outside sufficiently wide for carriages and beasts of burden to ascend. Nebuchadnezzar made great additions to this tower, and surrounded it with smaller edifices, inclosed by a wall somewhat more than two miles in circumference. The whole was sacred to Bel or Belus, whose temple was adorned with idols of gold and all the wealth that the Babylonians had acquired by the plunder of the East."

The earliest authentic record of the Babylonians goes back to B. C. 747. They were an offshoot from the Chaldeans who dwelt among the mountains of Taurus and Caucasus. They were employed originally as mercenaries by the Assyrians. That has always proved a dangerous experiment, frequently ending, as in this case, in the ultimate overthrow of the employing power by the employes. The introduction of the Egyptian solar year with the accession to the Babylonian throne of Nabonasar, merely fixes a date (B. C. 747). Nothing noteworthy occurred, however, except that calendraic adoption under that ruler, nor yet under his twelve successors. Prior to the overthrow of Nineveh, Babylon was the seat of a satrap rather than a king. The first real sovereign was Nabopolasar, the father of Nebuchadnezzar. The latter raised the empire to its supreme glory. He extended widely its area and the grandeur of Babylon. The book of Daniel furnishes about all the history we have of the empire from that date to its complete submission, supplemented by some references of a historical character in Jeremiah and Ezekiel.



Hanging Gardens of Babylon.

There is, however, a break in the record which can be supplied in its meager outlines from another source. So far as the Biblical record goes, it would be a waste of space to reproduce it, so familiar and accessible is it. But Belshazzar did not immediately succeed Nebuchadnezzar. Between them intervened the regency of Queen Nitocris, who held the reins of government during the strange insanity of the great king. Besides her were Evilmerodach, who was slain and succeeded by his brother-in-law, Neriglosar, whose son was dethroned for his despotism, and the lawful dynasty restored in the person of the young and dissolute Belshazzar, whose feast on the very night his capital was taken and himself slain, is known to all.

As we write, brilliant successes in Assyrian archæology are reported. In 1880 an expedition was organized to search for tablets, or brick books, on the site of Babylon. It was under the charge of Hormuzd Rassam. An account from a source usually authentic, states that Rassam has unearthed "a perfect treasure trove of relics, containing some traditions that date before the flood." The account proceeds thus:

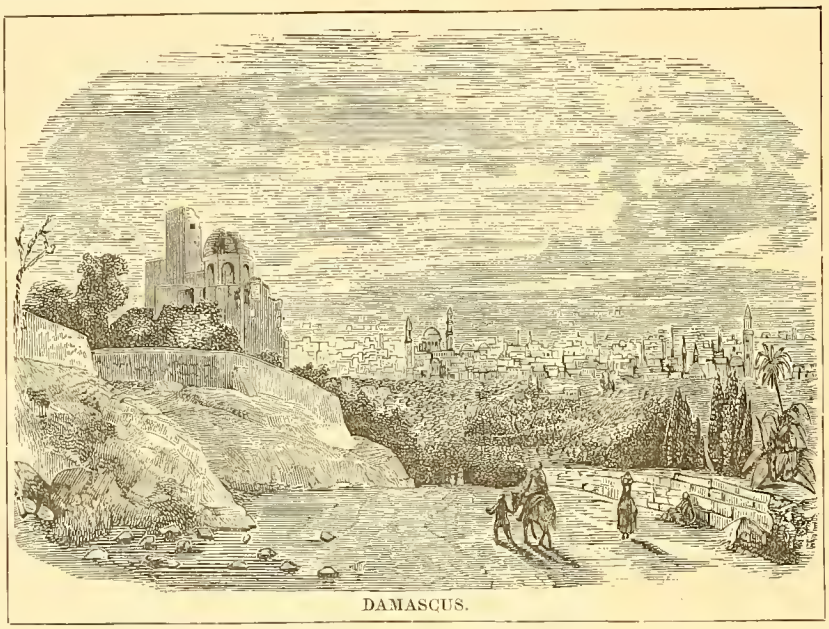
"Among his discoveries are the account-books of the great financial officers of the Babylonian Empire, who farmed the public revenues, this ancient syndicate being known as the house of Beni Egibi; fragments of the history of Babylon to the time of the capture of the city by Cyrus; royal personal records made by Cyrus and by Alexander the Great, who was consigned so summarily by Hamlet to the bunghole of a beer-barrel; a record of the gardens of King Merodach Caladan, who had sixty-three parks in Babylon; and several inscriptions made by Nebuchadnezzar himself, which may throw some light upon his bucolic experiences in the grass.

"Besides the records, Rassam has discovered extensive hydraulic works which were used to water the hanging gardens; the ruins of the observatory tower of the great temple of Nebo, containing beautiful specimens of vitrified bricks which have always been a puzzle to the scientists; the ruins of the city of Cutha, containing a temple that was restored by

Nebuchadnezzar; another city, not yet identified, at a place known by the Arabs as the Mounds of Deyr; and still another city which the records showed to be the ancient Sippara. These two cities Rassam believes to be the cities of Sepharvaim, mentioned in the Book of Kings."

The London *Times* gives the following interesting particulars concerning these two cities:

"The first three lines of the largest of the foundation records bring our speculative thoughts to a focus and center our minds on the traditions of one of the most ancient cities of Chaldea: 'To the Sun-god, the great lord, dwelling in Bit-Parra, which is within the City of Sippara.' Here, then, we have restored to us the ruins and records of a city whose traditions go back to the days before the flood, when pious Xisuthrus, by order of his god, 'buried in the city of Sippara of the Sun the history of the beginning, progress, and end of all things' antediluvian. And now we recover, twenty-seven centuries after they were buried, the records of the pious restorers of this ancient temple. Such a discovery as this almost makes us inclined to dig on in hopes of finding the most ancient records buried there by the Chaldaic Noah. There are many points of history raised by this inscription, but it will suffice to say that from the earliest days of Babylonian history the city of 'Sippara of the Sun' was a prominent center of social and religious life."



DAMASCUS.

Evidently the mysteries of antiquity, as hidden beneath the debris of Babylon the Great, afford a tempting field for exploration.

Had Alexander the Great lived to a good old age, Babylon would have had a second and perhaps more glorious career, but the untimely death of that great conqueror was fatal to her reconstruction. Ptolemy carried out the Alexandrian idea in Egypt, but the old capital of "the Chaldees' excellency" rapidly fell into ruins, and the jackals do indeed "cry in their desolate houses, and wild hounds in their pleasant palaces."

Syria is not a very definite term, but was generally used to designate not only the present Syria but Mesopotamia also, and a part of Asia Minor. Damascus was the capital of the kingdom of Syria, a city at least as old as Abraham. The desert of Syria was not far off, on the oasis of which were built Tadmor and Palmyra. Baalbec, one of the most interesting cities in ruins to be found anywhere, was another Syrian city. The country was often divided into numerous petty states, and as a nation achieved no honor. King David was successful in war against several Syrian states. It was near to the close of Solomon's reign that Damascus was founded. Its founder was Rezor, who had been a slave originally. He succeeded in building up a power which was a formidable foe to Israel for several centuries, but that was about all. The most powerful king of Syria was Benhadad. The Jews and Israelites, after the secession of the Ten Tribes, were often at war, and Syria was sometimes a party to their quarrels. During the reign of Ahaz at Jerusalem, the Syrians joined the Israelites in war upon the former, who sought the protection of Tiglath-pileser, of Assyria. Judea's extremity was Assyria's opportunity, and Damascus, which threatened to

rival Nineveh, was destroyed. With it fell the kingdom of Syria, to be lost sight of until after the dismemberment of the Macedonian Empire, when it once more was a name and a power.

The second period of Syrian history began with the victory of Seleucidæ over the satrap of Persia and Medea (B. C. 312) and continued until the Roman Empire swallowed up the kingdom, two hundred years later. He built up a strong kingdom and his son Antiochus strengthened it still more. The permanent capital of this new Syria was Antioch.

The Ptolemies, as we have seen, made themselves a mighty factor in the world's progress; but the Seleucidæ did nothing worthy of note. It is true that the Christians were first called such in Antioch, but that city never exerted any very remarkable influence in the religious world, and the second Syrian kingdom may be dismissed with the observation that it is suggestive of the fact, that nations, like individuals, may be so very commonplace as to be beneath notice. During the period of the Crusades Syria suffered terribly. In 1517 Sultan Selim conquered it, and it has ever since remained a part of the Ottoman Empire, except from 1832 to 1841, when it was under Egyptian rule. It now forms a portion of the three pashalics, Aleppo, Damascus, and Sidon, and has a population, inclusive of the nomadic Arabs, of about 2,000,000, most wretchedly governed, and eking out a scant subsistence upon a soil exhausted by improvident tillage.

The term Assyria long ago ceased to have a place in the actual, in distinction from the historical world, but the Syria of to-day is that portion of Turkey in Asia which lies between latitudes 31° and 37° 2′ north, skirting the Mediterranean Sea from the Gulf of Iskanderoon to the Isthmus of Suez, with an area estimated at 60,000 square miles, although the eastern and southern extensions are indefinite. It includes Palestine with its many mountains, towns, rivers, lakes and other places rendered sacred by Hebrew history and tradition. It is the land of the Bible, and the oriental customs, costumes and general mode of life of Biblical times may still be found there. Man has changed less than nature, for fields once fertile are now sterile. The great difficulty is the scarcity of water. The soil is light and sandy, easily rendered a victim of drouth. Wheat, barley and beans are the chief products. Figs, olives and mulberries thrive in many parts of Syria, and are the staple fruits of the land. Peaches, pomegranites, oranges, lemons, grapes, apricots and almonds are also grown there. Jackals, hyenas, antelopes, wild swine and wolves are the pest of Syria, while camels, asses, horses, sheep, goats and cattle are the main domestic animals. There are some Christians and a few Jews among the native population, but for the most part Mohammedanism is the prevailing religion. The language now mainly in use is Arabic. The old Syriac, or Aramaic, has nearly died out. Modern Greek is understood and largely used on the coast. The Syriac is a dialect of Shemitic language known to us through a Christian literature extending back to the second century of our era, and which flourished until the Saracen Empire arose, and the Cross gave way to the Crescent. A great deal of primitive Christian literature is preserved in that language. But the most notable distinction of the Syriac is its ancient versions of the New Testament. It also has at least two very old versions of the Old Testament. In determining the correct text of the sacred volume these venerable manuscripts are of inestimable importance. The Syriac language is in itself a curious monument of repeated conquests, containing as it does a great many words of Greek, Persian, Latin, Arabic and Tartar origin.

PERSIA, PARTHIA AND THE ZENDA VESTA

CHAPTER XIII.

PERSIAN ISOLATION—EARLY HISTORY AND WARS—PHYSICAL ASPECTS AND CONDITIONS—DARIUS, PARTHIA AND ROME—ZOROASTER AND THE MAGI—THE ZENDA VESTA AND THE PARSEES—SUMMARY OF THE PERSIAN BIBLE—COMPARATIVE ANTIQUITY—GOD, SATAN AND IMMORTALITY—MODERN PERSIA—PERSIAN LITERATURE.

IT is the peculiarity of Persia that it has hovered perpetually upon the border of civilization, neither contributing to it nor deriving benefit from it. From the earliest times to the present day it has been in intellectual isolation. Having much that was good, it has strangely lacked the assimilating faculty. It conquered Egypt, overthrew Babylon, and subdued the Greek cities of Asia Minor, yet it remained substantially the same. Its area varied with the fortunes of war, but its national character underwent no radical alteration. And even when the sword of Islam revolutionized the religion of Persia, the people remained as they had been from the earliest times, half barbaric and half civilized, all after their own fashion.

The early records of Persia are merely the wild dreams of fable and poetry. The earliest authentic account of that nation relates to the wars of Cyrus, Cambyses, Darius, Xerxes and Mithridates, of which we hear enough for the purposes of this volume in connection with Egypt, Greece and Rome. Persia deprived the first of independence, the second of existence itself, but sought in vain to conquer the third and fourth. It can only boast that, notwithstanding Alexander's victories and the heroism of Marathon, Thermopylæ, and Salamis, the Greeks did not destroy Persia; they simply preserved their own. Mithridates did not crush or even check Roman conquest, but his kingdom maintained its own individuality and independence, surviving the fall of Rome no less than the decay of Athens. The Persian dynasties, whether Archæmenidæ, Arsacidæ, or Sasanidæ, do not concern the world of progress, but they held their own for nearly twelve hundred years, falling only before the fanaticism of the Koran.

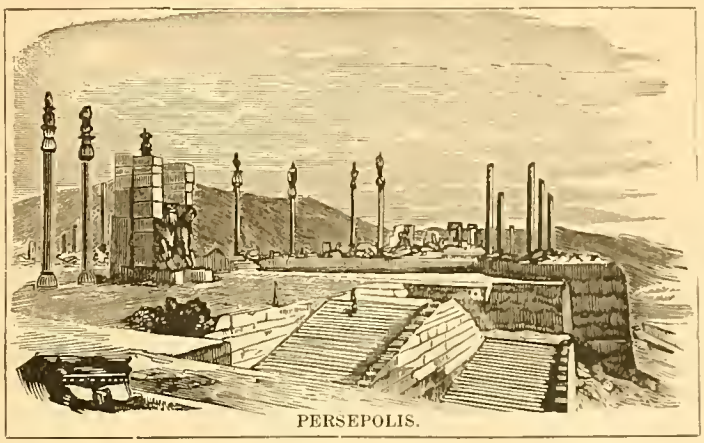
Ancient Persia was only about three hundred miles long and two hundred wide, between the Indian Ocean and the Persian Gulf. It is a mountainous country and not very fertile. It suffers severely from drouth. It was a good place to raise predatory warriors, also to excite poetic fancy and religious emotions, but a very poor place to cultivate a happy community and develop a wholesome state of society.

By the aid of Cuneiform inscriptions, the brick libraries of Assyria, and other sources of information, some genuine history has been arrived at. Darius Hystaspes, who came to the throne in B. C. 521, reduced the kingdom to political order. Before

his day, the Medes and Persians were two neighboring tribes of Assyrians, who, by uniting their forces, had been able to subdue kings and build up a great empire loosely held together. From his reign may be dated the consolidated and organized kingdom.

Among the more imposing ruins of antiquity must be numbered Persepolis, supposed to have been founded by this Darius. It was wantonly destroyed by Alexander the Great.

Darius Hystaspes divided the country into nineteen satrapies, or provinces, each holden for the purpose of certain fixed tribute and ruled by a satrap who was virtually absolute, so long as he paid his taxes in full. The central government maintained some authority as a safeguard against refusal to pay the assessments. There was indeed a period during which Persia seemed dead, the victim of Alexander's genius, but it was only stunned. The dynasty of Darius Hystaspes did, it is true, go down after two centuries, but in less than one hundred years the Parthians under Arsaces revolted, and another Persian dynasty was founded which remained in power about 450 years, Mithridates belonging to that dynasty. During that period the empire was usually called Parthia. The Parthians were a tribe of Ayrian neighbors of the Medes and Persians, to whom they were early subjected, and with whom they became identified. The change of name of the kingdom was mainly due to the dynastic change. The Parthians were often at war with Rome, neither gaining decisive victories. It is thought that if Julius Cæsar had lived a few years longer he would have annexed Parthia or Persia to the Roman Empire.



PERSEPOLIS.

The real interest in Persian history relates to Zoroaster and the Zenda Vesta. All else, except as it has already been suggested, may well be passed over in silence, as a period of war and intrigue having no vital connection with the great current of events. The ancient Greeks attributed, and the modern Parsees still attribute (the latter being those who still hold the Zenda Vesta to be the revelation of God) the authorship of the sacred book of old Persia to Zoroaster. He was a great philosopher and religious teacher. The age in which he lived is unknown, and conjectures vary widely. All the incidents of his life, as recorded, were mythical. He was a native of Bactria, a country in Central Asia, having the city of Bactria for its capital. It was the home of the Magi or "wise men" to whom reference is made in the Gospel of Matthew. A deputation of Magi, guided by the star of Bethlehem, paid their respects to the infant Jesus in his manger cradle.

The Zenda Vesta was the Bible of Persia under the olden kings. When Alexander overran Asia, the ancient religion fell into decline, and the Parthians systematically suppressed it. Many of the books or parts were lost forever, but when the Persian dynasty of Sassanidæ came to the throne, no effort was spared to restore "the good book" in its entirely. When the Mohammedans took Persia and compelled the people to substitute the Koran for the Zenda Vesta, the more devout and resolute fled to Bombay, Surat, and elsewhere, taking their religion and their literature with them. They are known now as Parsees, and to them is the world greatly indebted for the preservation of all that was really worth preserving in Persia.

Oriental scholars think that the oldest portions of this work cannot be placed later than B. C. 1500. It was added to from time to time, but the great bulk of it was collected together, it is supposed, about a thousand years later. It consists of twenty-one parts called Nosks, each containing a vesta and zend, that is, an original text and commentary thereon. Only a

very small part, chiefly the *Vendidad*, is extant. The names and summaries are as follows:

1. *Setudar.*—(Praise worship) containing the praise and worship of the *Yazatas*, or angels.

2. *Setudgar.*—Prayers and instructions to men about good actions: chiefly those enjoining one another to assist his fellowman.

3. *Vahista-Mathra.*—On abstinence, piety, and religion.

4. *Bagha.*—An explanation of religious duties, how to guard against hell and reach heaven.

5. *Dam-dat.*—Knowledge of this and a future life, revelations of God concerning heaven, earth, water, trees, fire, men and beasts. On the resurrection of the dead and the passing of the Bridge Chinvat.

The Visit of the Wise Men.

6. *Nadur.*—On astronomy, astrology, geography, etc.

7. *Pacham.*—What food is allowed or prohibited.

8. *Ratushtai.*—(Fifty chapters, only thirteen extant at the time of Alexander the Great) treated of kings and high priests.

9. *Burush.*—(Sixty chapters extant at the time of Alexander.) The code of laws for kings; also, on the sin of lying.

10. *Koshusarub.*—On metaphysics, natural philosophy, and divinity.

11. *Vishtasp Nosk.*—On the conversion of King Gushtasp and propagation of religion.

12. *Chidrusht.*—On the nature of divine things, obedience due to kings, agriculture, and the reward of good actions.

13. *Safand.*—On the miracles of Zoroaster.

14. *Baghan Yesh.*—Praise of high, angel-like men.

15. *Iarasht.*—On human life; why some are born in wealth and others in poverty.

16. *Nayarum.*—Code of law; what is allowed, what prohibited.

17. *Husparum.*—On medicine and astronomy.

18. *Domasarub.*—On marriages, and treatment of animals.

19. *Huskarum.*—Civil and criminal law.

20. *Vendidad.*—Removal of uncleanness of every description, from which great defects arise in the world.

21. *Hadokht.*—On the creation; its wonders.

The Zenda Vesta is supposed to be the oldest of all literary works, at least of the Aryan race, with one exception, and that exception is the Rig. Vida of India. The latter is believed to have been produced before the great Aryan family began its migration from India, and when the Sanscrit was the common language of all the many Aryan nations.* The Zenda Vesta is more spiritual. Instead of deifying natural objects, it spiritualizes worship. It must have produced, or been produced by, a great religious reformation.

The cardinal doctrine of this Persian faith was the existence of two mighty spirits, good and evil, God and Satan. The personality of the devil was not distinctly taught by Zoroaster, who believed in a great first cause, the primal good, and an evil tendency. But the region with which his name is identified is thoroughly dualistic, as much so as the scene in the Garden of Eden and the book of Job. The relics of the Zenda Vesta contain some sublime poetry, and eminently Christ-like prayers. The belief in a future existence of personal consciousness is a prominent feature of the Zoroastrian religion. The Jews were brought in contact with this religion during their captivity, and borrowed from them the word Paradise, for as found in the New Testament, it is a Persian word. The sect of the Pharisees, with their firm belief in immortality, may be claimed as the result of intercourse of the Jews with the Persians. In the Persian theology the spirit of good is called Ormuzd; of evil, Ahriman. In its present form the religion of ancient Persia sees in these two personages merely principles, tendencies, and laws of being.

The Persia of to-day is one of the most unhappy

* For the Aryans, see chapter on India.

kingdoms on the earth. In distress and misery the Persians are sadly pre-eminent. The government is an absolute monarchy. The king, or shah, knows no authority but his personal caprice. The present ruler, Nassr-ed-Din, revels in wealth while his subjects starve by the thousands. The area of the kingdom is 648,000 square miles, a large part of which is an arid desert. There are not, on an average, more than seven persons to a square mile, and still the population is excessive. The taxes are levied on the plan of squeezing from the producing class all they can possibly endure and live, often more than that. There are four cities of considerable size, Tauris or Tabreez, Teheran, Mershed, Ispahan and Yezd. Ispahan is the capital. There are eight thousand villages in the country. In 1873 the Shah visited Europe and much good was anticipated therefrom, but he was too brutish to profit by his observations. The prevailing religion is Mohammedanism. There are not more than seven thousand followers of Zoroaster left. They are called Parsees. The severity of Mohammedan persecution drove the persistent Parsees into exile. Many of them found asylum in India. The Armenian and Nestorian Christians are somewhat numerous in some parts of Persia. The native name for the country is Iran. The best feature of Persia is its educational facilities. There are numerous colleges for the upper classes in which Persian and Arabic literature are cultivated, and many of the common people can read. The literature of the language is rich, especially in poetical works. But in the rise of the Saracen Empire, the Persia which had so long maintained itself in its essence uncontaminated and unbroken, was lost forever. The old name exists and some of the national traits, but the blight of Islam was complete and irremediable.

The poets of Persia deserve high rank. The present poet-laureate of the Shah, Hakim Kaani, is said to have a rare command of language and rhythm, and to be worthy to rank with the best authors of the day. The first rank among the poets of Persia belongs to Rudaki. Whole lines are in the highest degree classic. He was born blind. Omar Kheiyane, a great poet, astronomer and mathematician, was the author of a work called *Aljebr u el Mukabileh*, or the science which still bears the name Algebra, which he gave it. He was an extreme free-thinker in religion. Anwari is another famous name in Persian classics. His "Divan," or collected works, has been lithographed at Zebris during the present reign. Saadi, who flourished in the thirteenth century, has never been excelled for the purity and elevation of his sentiments. His fancy soared among the stars of the most sublime ideas of ethics. His "Rose-Garden," a charming collection of moral tales in prose and verse, has been translated into English, and is one of the choice volumes of the world's best literature. But the supreme poet of Persia was Shems ed-Din Mohammed, better known by his *nom de plume* of Hafiz. He was born at Shiraz early in the fourteenth century. He, too, was a bold free-thinker who worshiped beauty rather than the Deity of any creed, and his interpretations of human sentiment in its diverse forms give him a place among the immortal bards of the ages. His tomb is an object of veneration to numerous visitors, and time only adds to the popularity of his lyrics.

Persian literature is also rich in works on morals and science, and in prose fictions. "The modern Persians," says Palmer, "like other oriental nations, have been stimulated into intellectual activity in recent times by communications with the West, and the result has been a number of useful works on educational and scientific subjects have been translated from the European languages. The old standard authors, however, still hold their ground, and are studied with as much ardor as ever. Judged from a literary point of view, the Persian intellect is brilliant, volatile and vivacious, and not unlike, in national characteristics, the French."

GREECE AND HERO WORSHIP.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE PRE-EMINENCE OF GREECE—THE GENERAL GRECIAN PECULIARITY—THE AGE OF FABLE AND POETRY—POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF THE TERRITORY—GROTE AND SCHLIEMANN—THE HEROIC AGE AND HERCULES—THESEUS, THE AMAZONS AND MEDEA—THE TROJAN HEROES—HOMER'S PORTRAYAL OF THE HEROIC AGE—THE SIEGE OF TROY—THE CITY TAKEN—THE WANDERINGS OF ULYSSES—THE CLOSING SCENE.

IN the desert of antiquity stands that beautiful oasis, Greece, forever green and fertile in the products of genius. We may admire the martial splendor of Alexander, the dauntless heroism of Marathon and Thermopylæ, the statesmanship of Pericles, and the naval splendors of Salamis, but it is to her poets and philosophers, her art and her oratory, that Greece owes the crown of fadeless glory which encircles the Hellenic brow and makes the subject upon which we enter with this chapter replete with interest. That little rock-bound southeastern peninsula of Europe is linked in proud pre-eminence with the civilization of the entire continent. For a long time it was the only civilized portion of Europe. Everywhere else the barbarian held undisputed sway for centuries after the Hellenes had mastered "the wisdom of the Egyptians" and bettered their instructions.

Hard by Africa and Asia both, with ample harbors and productive soil, the country was well adapted to be the home of a great if not a numerous people. The term Greek really includes not only the dwellers on that peninsula, as we shall see, but numerous colonies established on adjacent islands and mainland. To trace in detail the growth and decay of each petty state in Greece proper, even, would be tedious and unprofitable. The aim is to make plain the subject in its entirety, and enable one to clearly apprehend the place belonging to the Greeks in the world of the past. It may be remarked here that the Alexandrian age of Egypt was, as has been shown, more Grecian than Coptic, and that having once entered the stream of progress, the Hellenic waters never ceased to give color and character to the whole body, much as the Mississippi river is essentially the Missouri after their waters commingle and flow together into the Gulf of Mexico.

Much which long passed for Grecian history is now known to be wildly fabulous, and some things gravely condemned as fiction have been shown by later research to have been actual. In the critical work which exposed the legendary and mythical character of supposed history, the late Mr. Grote took the lead, and for the rescue of actual facts from the reproach of being unreal, the world is supremely indebted to Schliemann. Between what one tore down and the other built up,—dug up,

rather,—the dark places of Grecian history have been made bright with intelligence. The first great name in Greece is that of Homer, and Schliemann has shown that his Trojan war was not the vagary of inventive genius, but the veritable siege of a veritable city. However much freedom the poet allowed his muse, his subject was historical. Troy was no myth, and in monumental ruins may be read the story of "the wrath of Achilles." And if Homer had a substratum of history for his heroes, so, no doubt, had the great dramatists of Greece whose grand conceptions fill a large space in the intellectual world. It would be vain, however, to attempt the separation of truth and fiction, and more profitable to view all those characters in a poetic light, as we do Hamlet, King Lear and Hiawatha.

Homer.

From first to last Greece was divided into numerous states, generally independent of each other, and sometimes at war. The union of those commonwealths was confederate rather than federal, and when brought to its strongest point was really a partnership at will. The doctrine of "state sovereignty" was never disputed. Homer may be said to furnish the key of the entire political history of the Greeks, when he introduces us to Achilles sulking in his tent, and the allies powerless to coerce his active co-operation in the war then in progress, and for which he had enlisted. It was not until he voluntarily buckled on his shield and drew his rusty sword from its scabbard, that he led his terrible myrmidons into battle, slew the mighty Hector, and paved the way for the fall of Troy. It is, of course, idle to speculate as to the probable course of history had the Greeks been one nation. Perhaps the glories of Greece and Rome would both have unified.

It may be, on the other hand, that, like the Germany of the first half of the present century, it owes much of its literary importance to its political insignificance, and that national greatness would have dwarfed the intellectual growth of the people. The age of Grecian barbarism, midway between primitive savagery and the civilization which could produce a Homer and the long line of subsequent splendor, is called the Heroic age. Not that it was really more grand than any other similar age in other lands, but the poets took up the faintly outlined characters, weaving about them ideal personalities, combining the rugged originals with a sublimation purely fanciful. This heroic period is not definite in chronology, but generally designates the time from B. C. 1400 to B. C. 1200. The first of these is Hercules, whose marvelous exploits would, if true, prove him to have been indeed a demigod. He was a knight-errant, succoring the weak, subduing tyrants, and performing labors most prodigious. The Greeks of the period before his day are called Pelasgians. Hercules was a Phœnician by blood.

Hercules.

He was born in Thebes, not the grand old city of the Nile, but the town of that name in Greece founded by Cadmus the Phœnician. He traveled far by land and water. The Straits of Gibralter were his pillars. His proverbial labors were undertaken in expiation of the murder of his wife and children, committed in a fit of rage; at least, that is the more usual explanation of those labors. These labors were twelve in number, the chief being the slaying of the Nemean lion, one of the hydra with nine heads; cleansing the stables of King Augeas who had a herd of three thousand oxen whose stables had not been cleansed for thirty years; stealing the girdle of Hippolyta, the queen of the Amazons, and the apples in the garden of the Hesperides, the gift of the goddess Earth to Juno on the occasion of her marriage with Jove. His final labor was bring-

ing Cerberus, the watch-dog of hell, from the nether world. The shirt steeped in the blood of Nessus, which caused his death in awful agony, was sent to him by his wife, who was inflamed with causeless jealousy. The garment burned into his flesh and could not be gotten off without taking the flesh with it. All these exploits and experiences are in constant use for illustrations.

Next to Hercules in heroic eminence was Theseus, the pride of Athens. His name brings up the familiar bed of Procustes, or the stretcher. It was of iron. All travelers who fell into his hands were placed upon it. If they were longer than the bed they were chopped off, if shorter, they were stretched. This eccentric landlord was placed upon his own bedstead by Theseus and made to accept his own hospitality. Theseus made war upon those illustrious females, the Amazons, as Hercules had before him. Greek sculpture was fond of representing the battles of the Amazons, and to the end of time, women who boldly stand up for their rights, undaunted by masculine opposition, will be known as Amazons. Theseus has figured more upon the histrionic stage than Hercules. We catch a shadowy glimpse of this hero in history. His shade flits across the stage of statecraft, but only to disappear in the clouds of antique dust.

The heroic age is, for the most part, the story of the Trojan heroes and those associated with them. Homer was not alone in treating this subject. On the contrary, his accounts are tantalizing, and what he omitted the tragedians sought to supply. Homer introduces us to the Greeks on the plain before the doomed city, and during the Iliad never once wanders from that charmed spot. The Odyssey treats only of the wanderings of Ulysses. Of what went before and followed after, we know nothing, except as others furnished the information. Between all, the account is quite full. An attempt will now be made to narrate all the important features of this great picture of the heroic age and its apotheosis by genius.

Menelaus.

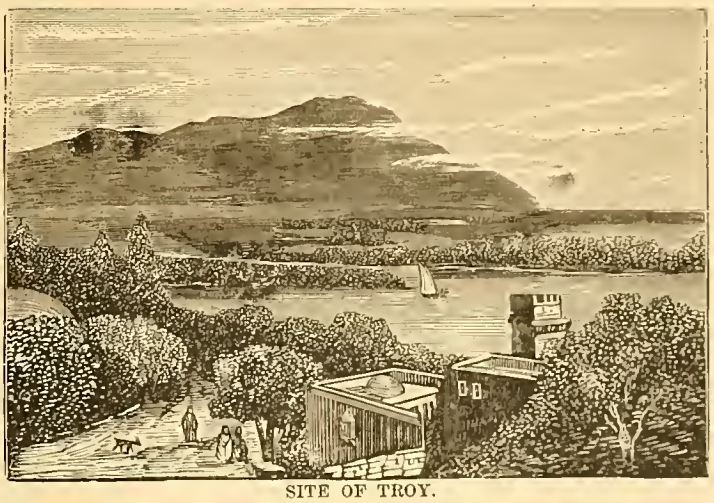
Paris, the handsome son of Priam, King of Troy, paid a visit to Menelaus, King of Sparta. He abused the hospitality of his royal friend by eloping with his beautiful wife, Helen. The injured husband sent tidings of his wrong to the different

Iphigenia.

chiefs of Greece, inviting them to join in avenging the outrage. The appeal met with a cordial response. All were willing to go except Ulysses of Ithaca. He had just married a wife, and still more recently become a father. Not wanting to leave the lovely Penelope and the infant Telemachus, he pretended to be crazy, but the trick was detected, and the trickster joined them in the expedition. A vote was taken on the question of who should be generalissimo. The choice did not fall upon the venerable Nestor, the brave Achilles, or the crafty Ulysses, but upon the magnificent Agamemnon. To insure success and safety, the commander-in-chief resolved to offer in sacrifice his own daughter, Iphigenia. A goddess interposed and saved the girl, leaving a hind upon the altar as a substitute. One may see in this story a resemblance to the less tragic incident commemorative of Hebrew substitution of a sheep for a human being. But Agamemnon, unlike Abraham, supposed his child had perished. So did the mother, Clytemnestra, who thereupon conceived deadly hatred for her husband, a hatred that made her false to her marriage vows, and cost him his life upon his return from the war. But to proceed. On their way to Troy the fleet attacked an innocent people and despoiled them. Among the victims taken captive was the beautiful maiden, Briseis. The girl was allotted to Achilles, but coveted by Agamem-

non. The latter, exerting his superior authority, took her to himself. Thereupon Achilles withdrew from the general camp and began his immortal "sulks." The war dragged its weary length, battle after battle being fought without decisive advantage on either side, until, finally, a friend of Achilles, Patroclus, was slain, when the great sulker forgot his grievance and made short work of the Trojans.

The Greeks were still unable to enter the city. To drive the warriors within the gates was all that they could do. Then it was that the craft of Ulysses achieved its greatest triumph. At his suggestion a huge wooden horse was made and filled with the flower of the army. The Greeks then set sail as if tired of the enterprise. Troy was exultant over the raising of the siege, and fell into the trap. Sallying forth to view the relics of the camp, great curiosity was excited by the wooden horse. The people concluded to bring it into the city as a trophy. A Trojan priest, by the name of Laocoön, tried to dissuade them from this madness. "I fear the Greeks," he said, "even when they offer gifts." Hardly had he spoken thus, accompanied by his two sons, when two monstrous sea-serpents came ashore, making straight for the priest and his sons, whom they strangled, and the popular cry was that the gods were angered by his opposition. With enthusiasm, if hard work, the horse was brought within the walls. Previous to this, Ulysses and Diomed had crept into the town and stolen an image of Minerva, called the Palladium, which was the safety of the city. The silly Trojans flattered themselves that they now had a substitute for the Palladium. At night when all was still, the men cut their way out of their equine box, set fire to the city, and opened the gates to their friends who had quietly sailed back. The fall of Troy was thus brought about by strategy and not by bravery. The slaughter was terrible and relentless. Those who escaped the sword were sold into slavery, including the survivors of the royal family. A few fled under the leadership of Æneas, who, according to Virgil, was the father of Rome. Helen's crime was condoned by her husband with whom she returned to Sparta. Throughout, she is represented as passive in the extreme.



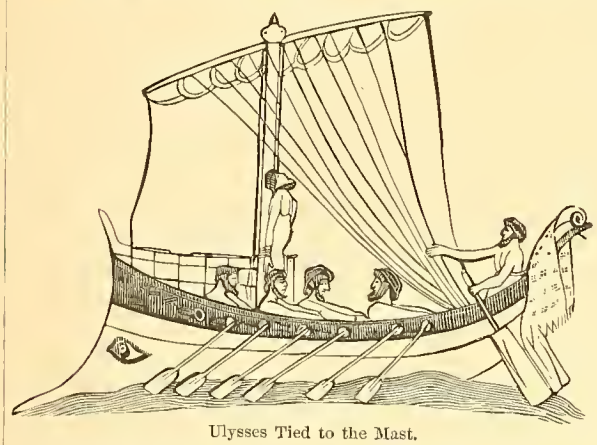
SITE OF TROY.

Varied were the experiences of the heroes. Achilles had already been slain, shot in the heel (his only vulnerable spot) by a poisoned arrow from the shaft of the cowardly and mean Paris. The murder of Agamemnon upon the threshold of his own palace was a favorite theme of the tragedians, and the sorrows of his children furnished occasion for illustrating the pitilessness of fate. But Ulysses was the real hero after the fall of Troy. He wandered in many lands. Homer represents him visiting every land known to the Greeks, real and fabulous, and experiencing all sorts of dangers. He even went to the infernal regions and returned.

The first country visited which was purely fabulous and has always been fraught with poetic interest was the land of the lotus-eaters. The food of the people was the lotus-plant, the effect of which was perfect contentment with present surroundings. It was with difficulty that Ulysses could drag his companions on shipboard. They next arrived at the island home of the Cyclops, — giants who dwelt in caves and had a fondness for human flesh. One of these monsters, Polyphemus, devoured several Greeks. The wily chief got him under the influence of wine, put out his eye (for he had only one, and that in the center of his forehead). After that it was easy to escape from the cave and the island. The island of King Æolus was touched upon next. This monarch was intrusted with the custody of the winds, kept in bags. He treated the distinguished traveler with deference and at parting gave him a bag of wind. The sailors were so curi-

ous to know what was in the sack that they untied it, whereupon a furious hurricane arose, blowing the ship back to the island, and exposing them all to great peril. Not long after the ship came to the Ægean Isles, where the daughter of the sun, Circe, dwelt. She was a potent sorceress, able by her enchantment to turn men into swine. She practiced her arts upon a part of the crew. By the aid of Mercury, Ulysses succeeded not only in resisting her influence but in compelling her to disenchant his companions. They were most hospitably entertained after that, and it is broadly intimated that Ulysses was quite content to stay with the fair enchantress. But dalliance came to an end at last, and the crew once more set sail for home.

The story of the Sirens belongs to this wonderful journey, as do Scylla and Charybdis. The Sirens were mystic maidens who could sing so sweetly that to hear them was to be drawn towards them by an irresistible impulse. They were on land, and if the sailors and companions of the

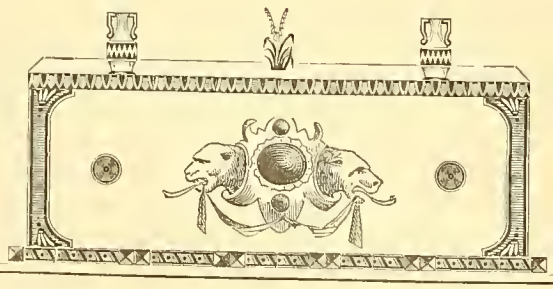


Ulysses Tied to the Mast.

great Greek attempted to swim ashore, they would surely perish. Ulysses, having been warned by the goddess Circe, caused himself to be bound to the mast, and told his companions to fill their ears with wax. Those who did so escaped the enchantment, while those who did not lost their lives. Scylla was a rock and Charybdis a whirlpool near together, between which he was obliged to sail. A slight variation either way from the roadstead, and all would have been destroyed.

It was such hairbreadth escapes as these which fill the pages of the Odyssey, and serve to illustrate the puerility of the early Greek knowledge of the world. Homer is supposed to have been a Greek of Asia Minor, but even those enterprising colonists were illy acquainted with the rest of mankind. We cannot stop to tell all the prodigious experiences of the wanderer. Reaching home as last, after an absence of twenty years, he found his faithful Penelope cunningly dodging the matrimonial question. A crowd of suitors sought her hand (for she was a "rich widow"). She promised to select one among the number as soon as she had finished weaving the garment then in her loom. By day she worked industriously, and in the silence of the night unraveled what she had woven during the day. Ulysses pretended to be a beggar, and as an old tramp presented himself at the dining-room door of his own palace, where the suitors were feasting at his expense. When they were well plied with wine he drew his sword and made terrible havoc among them.

It may be said that the world takes leave of the heroic age of Greece with the spectacle of that first of Enoch Ardens heaping in indiscriminate slaughter the gang who, under the pretext of courting his supposed widow, were literally eating him out of house and home. One bids farewell to this last of the heroes feeling that he was more moved by the prodigality of his insolent guests than by the constancy of his ideal wife, the ever-praised Penelope.



HISTORIC WARS OF GREECE.

CHAPTER XV.

THE ACTUAL IN FABULOUS WARS—SPARTANS AND MESSENIANS—THE FOUR GREAT WARS OF GREECE—ASIA MINOR AND CRŒSUS—THE PERSIANS AND THE IONIANS—THE INVASION OF GREECE BY THE PERSIANS—THE GLORIES OF MARATHON—THERMOPYLÆ AND ITS HEROIC DEFENSE—SALAMIS AND THE FLIGHT OF XERXES—THEMISTOCLES AND THE INGRATITUDE OF REPUBLICS—THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR—THE GENIUS OF PERICLES—PHILIP OF MACEDON—ALEXANDER THE GREAT—ROMAN CONQUEST OF GREECE—SIEGE OF ATHENS—MODERN GREEK HEROISM.

THUS far our history has not dealt very much in human butchery, nor do we intend that it shall, except as the same may be necessary to the unfolding of the progress of the world from savagery to genuine civilization. In the case of Greece, her historians seemed to think the blood-stained footprints of war would interest posterity vastly more than the domestic life, the poetry, the art, the philosophy, and the social institutions of the people. To find the most elaborate details of the almost interminable civil wars of Greece, one has only to turn to Herodotus, Thucydides or kindred historians of later date. They tell all about them, but the far more important and interesting class of information alluded to must be searched for in the by-ways of knowledge. The average history of Greece is mainly devoted to the exploits of armies. The field of real interest is a narrow one, however. The Trojan war belongs to history, it is true, in its general outlines, but all the surviving details appertain to the heroic age, the fabulous and the poetic. In the gray of the morning all was misty, and Homer's blind eyes saw gods watching over and assisting godlike men, engaged in the business and pastime of cutting each other's throats.

The first historic war of Greece was waged between the Spartans and the Messenians. Around that series of struggles, romance and poetry have thrown no robe of beauty. For it has been woven no royal purple, no cloth of gold. Many details have been preserved, but they add little, if anything, to the valuable store of human knowledge. Those two peoples dwelt as neighboring states on the Peloponnesus. They were of one stock—Dorians. But they were unlike by the time they rose above the obscuring hills of time. Messenia was a much better country than Lacedæmonia. It produced better crops and better people. But Lacedæmonia had Sparta, and Sparta had Lycurgus. As a military community the Spartans were the superior, and with the usual meanness of uncivilized people, the stronger continually encroached upon the weaker, and provoked war. A chronic state of belligereney existed between them. Even when the fire seemed dead, it only smouldered. There were three Messenian wars, with the dates, B. C. 743–724; 685–668; 464–455, covering a period of about three centuries.

and active hostilities during forty-five years, all told. Finally, in the latest set-to, lasting nine years, the Messenians were not only conquered, as usual, but wiped out. It was a war of extermination. "When Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war." The better but weaker people were driven from Peloponnesus, disappearing forever as a distinctive people from the face of the earth, leaving behind them little else than the record of their calamity.

Passing by trivial outbreaks of hostility, we may say that the great historic wars of the Greeks, exclusive of the Messenian, were four, namely, the Persian, the Peloponnesian, the Macedonian and the Roman. Each one of these had an important bearing upon the great events of world-wide interest. We have named them in their chronological order. The first began in Asia Minor, but was none the less Greek, and ultimately extended to Greece. It may be said to have begun with the fall of Crœsus (B. C. 546), and closed with Cimon's defeat of the naval and military forces of the Persians in the battle of Eurymedon (B. C. 465), a period of eighty-one years. The Peloponnesian, or great civil war of Greece, began in B. C. 431 and continued with hardly any cessation of hostilities for twenty-seven years. Macedonia began to be a power in the world during the reign of Philip, the father of Alexander the Great. He began the interference with the affairs of Peloponnesus, B. C. 344. His greater son closed his prodigious career B. C. 323, and with his death terminated the really brilliant military career of Greece. The fourth war in the present list, the one with Rome, was little more than the gradual absorption of Greece and the Greeks round about, in the universal empire of the Eternal City. The first conflict of Greek and Roman arms was in B. C. 214, and in B. C. 146 the supremacy of Rome over Greece ceased to be disputed or resisted. Such are the boundaries of our present theme.

The Greeks were a people of wonderful enterprise. They sent out colonies without number. The population, in excess of what was convenient and desirable, "went west," only "out west" was really "down east" Unless, indeed, as some think, the Greek settlements on the mainland were the older of the two. However that may be, it is undeniable that crossing to the opposite shore, they built cities and developed states with marvelous fecundity. The fatherland laid claim to no sovereignty over the swarms which went out from the parent hive, and the best of feeling prevailed. While these colonies were flourishing in wealth and culture, there grew up a somewhat important kingdom further inland—Lydia. The colonial cities were free marts of commerce, like the cities of Holland and Germany, which formed the Hanseatic League and of which we shall speak at a later period. Not content with further enlargement toward the East, Lydia, like Russia, was impatient for a seaboard. Crœsus, the Lydian king whose wealth has been proverbial, and is so still, came to the throne in B. C. 560. He laid siege to Ephesus, one of the Grecian cities of Asia Minor, and soon took it. He treated the citizens so leniently that he had very little difficulty in extending his sway, in a patriarchal way, over the whole of Asia Minor. For a tribute, small to those commercial cities, but enormous to him, he agreed to respect their rights and defend them, too. The cities and the monarchy sustained some such relations to each other as vassals and baron in the feudal system. His enormous wealth became known and laid him liable to attack. About that time Cyrus the Great came on the stage of imperial action. He was a Persian, but he held the scepter of Medea as well, the latter being a great kingdom. Cyrus moved upon Crœsus, and before the opulent monarch could utilize his resources Lydia became a province of Persia, and thus the Greek and the Persian were brought face to face for the first time. Crœsus had the means to procure powerful if not invincible help. He sent his ambassadors to Sparta and an alliance was formed, but before the aid could arrive all was over.

Cyrus would have had the ready allegiance of the Greek cities, had he been content to guarantee the continuance of the mild sway of the Lydian sovereign; but his demand was "unconditional and immediate surrender." To this they would not consent. He deputized his lieutenants to complete the subjugation of Asia Minor. It was not a difficult task. Nor was the Persian yoke heavy or irksome, and the sovereignty of Persia was soon acknowledged throughout Asia Minor.

Cyrus was ambitious of bagging larger game than Lydia, and as for Greece, he knew no more about it than a Tartar does of Australia. He besieged Babylon, and it fell. The exploits of himself and of his son Cambyses in Egypt have already been men-

tioned. It was not until Darius, the successor of Cambyses, came to the throne, that Greece attracted Persian attention. A trivial accident was the spark which kindled the flame of that great war. At that time Darius had a magnificent empire. It extended from the Ægean Sea to the Indian ocean, and from the steppes of Russia in Asia, to the cataracts of the Nile. The idea of his being seriously mindful of little Greece, would have seemed to him absurd. One day he sprained his ankle while out hunting. There happened to be a Greek physician within call, named Democedes, and he was summoned to dress the wound, which he did so skillfully that the king insisted upon retaining him as his family doctor. His favorite wife, Queen Atossa, was treated by Democedes, and so satisfactorily, that she conceived a desire to have Greek maids to attend her, comb her hair and make her dresses. To please her, the doctor was sent to Greece, under escort, to procure the damsels. His companions were instructed to find out all they could about the country, and their report may be said to have introduced Greece to Persia, and been the beginning of the relations between those two countries. It was not immediately productive of results. Had all the states of Greece adopted and adhered to the "Monroe doctrine," as the policy of non-intervention with the affairs of other nations is called, they might have been spared war with the great empire of Asia. But the Athenians undertook to meddle with the affairs of that continent, as friends of the Ionians, and to resent an insolent threat by Persia. Athens was by that time a powerful state with a very formidable navy. Sardis, the capital of Lydia, one of the twenty satrapies of Persia, was taken by the Ionians and the Athenians. Darius was more indignant with the intermeddlers from Athens than with the others, who had been gradually drawn into the rebellion by a train of circumstances which furnished some excuse for their uprising. The success of the combined invasion and its result loosened the hold of Darius upon all Asia Minor. If the victors had been sustained by reinforcements, they might have been successful in defying the power of Persia. But they were not. Athens was content to drop the matter, and asked only to be "let alone." Having made a brilliant sortie, for that was about all it amounted to, the Athenians were disposed to go home and there let it end. But not so with Darius. He found it no very hard matter to reduce the Ionians and such other subjects as had been incited to rebellion by their example. It took several years, however, to compass that end. When it came, all traces of freedom were obliterated, and those once independent cities became in reality subject to a despotic power.

The king then pursued his revenge to the mother country. He sent an army under Mardonius through Thrace into Greece. The Macedonians, through whose country he had to pass, made it very unpleasant for the invaders. The Persians were so crippled that they thought it prudent to go back and recruit, first punishing severely their guerilla assailants. That was in B. C. 492.

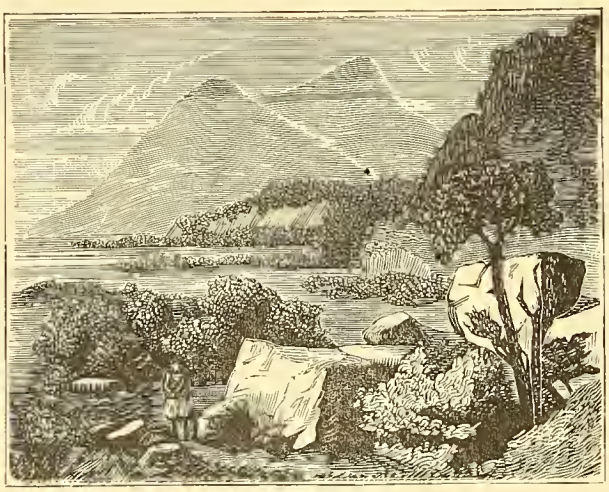
Two years later a greater force came over. This time a far different course was pursued, and devastating as they went, the Persians steered their way by water for Attica. It was a mighty armament. Of course the details given are colored, because we have only the Greek version of them. The army landed on the plain of Marathon, in the bay of which the Persian fleet found anchorage. That plain is now one of the most memorable spots in all history; made so by Greek valor on the present occasion. It is one of the few level regions of any extent in Attica, being about five miles in length and two in breadth. Two days' march and the army would be before the walls of Athens, and it is almost certain, that if that march had been made, the city which had the honor of being the literary and artistic capital of the classic world would have fallen, its mission of culture still far from complete. It is supremely ridiculous to say of most battles, that upon their results the fate of ages and peoples was staked, but in this instance such was the case.

Miltiades.

The Athenians were equal to the emergency. They boldly met the invaders. The battle of Hastings was a repetition of the battle of Marathon, only with reversed results. William of Normandy conquered the Saxons, Harold falling with his kingdom, but Miltiades, the hero of Marathon, was successful. His handful of brave Athenians rushed forward to the attack so furiously that they soon drove the enemy to their ships. Their gal-

lant impetuosity caused a pause and made the victory complete. They had no allies. It was Athens against the countless hordes of barbarism. About ten thousand European freemen repelled the attack of at least half a million of Asiatics. That was the first real meeting of the two continents in hostility upon a scale of continental importance. The Spartans were on their way to Marathon, but Miltiades needed no "night or Blücher" to help him win his Waterloo. It is a melancholy reflection that the hero of this victory, more brilliant than Waterloo or the Wilderness, died in prison not long after, his confinement aggravating a wound he received in an unsuccessful attempt, subsequent to Marathon, to enlarge the dominion of Athens. His fate contributed largely to the proverbial idea of the ingratitude of republics.

The Persians were exasperated rather than discouraged by the fortunes of Marathon. Darius resolved to take a revenge worthy his magnificence. An executive officer in distinction from a man of war, he was equal to great achievements, in preparation at least, for a clash of arms. But before he had completed his necessary arrangements death called him away. That was in B. C. 485. Xerxes, the son of the favorite wife already mentioned, took his place upon the throne. He had other matters of importance to attend to, and it was four years more before the Persians were ready to renew the offensive. The king proposed to accompany the expedition in person. The point of crossing selected was the narrow strip of water, the Hellespont, where the two continents come nearly together. A bridge was built across it. That was a great work, attended with exceeding difficulties. The army of invasion was provided with a vast fleet, as well as all conceivable facilities for operation by land. With a show of fairness the monarch sent embassadors to the different states of Greece to demand submission. The expression of compliance with this demand was by sending back earth and water. Several of the smaller states complied, and the disposition to actually resist was confined to Athens and Sparta. The latter seemed to remember the glories of Marathon in a noble spirit of emulation, rather than a mean spirit of envy. It was in the spring of B. C. 480 that Greece was invaded, and in a few months, two more battles, hardly less memorable than Marathon, were fought, one by land and the other on the sea, the first, Thermopylæ, being the everlasting glory of Sparta, the second, Salamis, adding another star to the Athenian crown.



Pass of Thermopylæ.

Thermopylæ was a narrow pass, through which the mighty army had to march, in gaining a foothold of advantage. Its defense was intrusted to Leonidas, king of Sparta, and his squad—for it was hardly more than that—consisted of three hundred Spartans, with their Helots, or serfs, and about twenty-five hundred men, gathered from other cities of Greece. The latter proved to be of no real assistance. On one side was one of the largest armies ever in array anywhere or at any time, and on the other a small battalion. Had the position of the defenders been approachable only on one side, as generally supposed, the resistance would have been effectual, but there was a weak point, a secret path, by which the enemy could flank them. A traitor (not a Spartan) betrayed that decisive secret to the Persians. When they learned that, the Spartans knew that they could not hope to keep back the assailing horde. They would not surrender, neither would they fly. The post of danger which their country had assigned them was held with an unfaltering heroism. Leonidas and his brave three hundred only thought of selling their lives as dearly as they could. The slaughter which they produced was prodigious, for the number engaged in it. They fell like the old guard at Waterloo, with their faces to the foe, and their swords fairly glutted with blood. Xerxes gained possession of the pass,

and so far as mere men was concerned, had suffered no crippling loss. But a grand moral effect was produced. The Greeks were fired with a heroic patriotism seldom displayed by any people. The Persians marched upon Athens, which they found very nearly deserted, and after a short check, took possession of it, and wrought their barbaric will. Fortunately, that was before the statesmanship of Pericles, and the genius of Praxiteles and other artists and architects, had made it the marvel of the world. The people had been removed with all their movables, and scattered to places of safety. Thermopylæ was to Greece at that time much what the battle of Bunker Hill was to the Americans of the Revolutionary War, and the taking of Athens did Xerxes no more good than the taking of Washington did the British, in the second war between England and the United States.

The decisive battle of the Persian war was still to be fought, and that by water. And now the far-sighted wisdom of Athens was displayed. Ever since the battle of Marathon, the return of the Persians had been anticipated, and the greatest Athenian of his time, Themistocles, had been unsparing and untiring in making preparation to meet the enemy upon the element which separated the two countries. The revenues of the state, derived mainly from mines, which had been divided among the citizens, he induced the people to appropriate to the construction of a navy. There were a few other Greek navies of small dimensions, but the Athenian only was really formidable. Themistocles had to use a great deal of diplomacy to get the Persians to venture everything upon a naval engagement, but he finally succeeded. The Grecian fleet was massed at Salamis, and Xerxes ordered it to be surrounded and cut to pieces. That order was precisely what Themistocles wanted, for it afforded opportunity for doing something decisive. The battle was not a long one. The Persian fleet was a vast, unwieldy, and soon panic-stricken mob of boats, and the well-trained triremes of Athens cut them down like grass. It was Marathon upon the sea. The terrified monarch, as he beheld the engagement from a lofty throne on the Grecian shore, caught the mania, and fearing that he might be hemmed in and lost utterly, made haste to regain the Hellespont and recross it. Themistocles secretly spurred him on by reports sent to him by pretended traitors. The great Athenian judged that if the Persians fled from the country in terror, they would never again seriously menace the liberties of Greece, and he was right. Some further feeble attempts were made in that direction, but nothing was done having in it any real menace and peril. Never again had Greece occasion to fear Eastern enemies, and when the two nations next appear before us the brave defenders are no less brave if less honorable assailants, and Persia is on the defensive.

The fate of Themistocles was hardly less sad than that of Miltiades. He did not die in prison, but he was banished and became a pensioner upon the bounty of the son and successor of Xerxes, Artaxerxes. Of the three heroes of the Persian war, only Leonidas was spared the pangs inflicted by an ungrateful people. He fell upon the field of glory.

The father of the Athenian navy, the Nelson of antiquity, in his last days gave still further emphasis to the ingratitude of republics. In all communities which are really free, there is a wide range for the pendulum of popular favor, and the favor of one hour may turn to disfavor in the next. In this country this fact is constantly being illustrated. But there is this difference in Greek and American popular sentiment. Its loss in the former case was banishment or death; in the latter it is merely adverse criticism, traduction perhaps, and relegation to private life. The spirit of party ran higher and went further then and there than now and here. Even Aristides, surnamed the Just, was banished simply because the people wearied of his monotonous goodness, and when the crisis at Salamis came, he was found with his countrymen, working together with his old rival, Themistocles, for the common cause. The glory of Greece, and especially of Athens, would have been more brilliant in all these ages if the surviving heroes of the great Persian wars had not suffered the vengeance of party politics.

Aristides.

The next great war of Greece was the Peloponnesian war. It was entirely Grecian and yet had some connection with the Persian invasion. The latter developed vast military prowess, for even after Salamis it was necessary to keep up a powerful

army of defense. It was several years before the danger of another invasion was over, and still longer before the fear of it subsided. To be prepared for the worst, the Athenians and Spartans agreed to live together in peace for at least thirty years. That truce was born of fear lest the "barbarian" should again swoop down upon them. It was scrupulously observed. In the meanwhile, both states flourished and became far stronger than ever before. The expiration of the truce found Greece on a military footing, for the repulsion of a foe whose reappearance had by that time ceased to be apprehended. With nothing particular to do (for Greece was not ambitious for foreign conquest) the two great rival states were not long in coming to blows after the truce had lapsed. There has been a great deal of learned explanation of the causes of the war which now began (called the Peloponnesian), but the real explanation is found in the one word—jealousy. Athens wanted to be, and really ought to have been, the political capital of Greece then, as she is now. Sparta would consent to nothing of the kind, and each had its sympathizers. For twenty-seven years the conflict was maintained, and it was as inglorious as the other was glorious. The genius of Thucydides as a historian, and especially as a writer of eloquent orations which were never delivered, has thrown around it a halo, and given it an undue prominence. It began in the year B. C. 431, and the Athenians finally, in B. C. 405, submitted to terms of peace which left the States of Greece sustaining to each other substantially the same "state rights" relation as they did originally, except that Sparta now claimed a certain supremacy, an advantage it lacked the statesmanship to retain and turn to much real benefit.

Alexander the Great.

We pass over this period without going into details. They are not important enough to justify it. The glory of that era was indeed great, but it was not military. The civil genius of Pericles and the intellectual grandeur of others of whom we are yet to speak, have contributed incalculably to the splendor of classic antiquity. But Pericles died in the third year of the war, and Sparta really added no luster to the glories of Thermopylæ, by preparing the way as she did for the subjugation of all Peloponnesus, herself included, by the semi-Hellenic Alexander of Macedonia, upon whose wars we now enter.

It was not until Greece had been sorely rent by inter-state wars and had degenerated, politically speaking, into a jargon of petty and rival nationalities, that Macedonia came upon the stage. The real founder of the Macedonian Empire was not Alexander, but his father, Philip. The son carried out the vast scheme of his royal sire. Both died young. Philip was only forty-seven years of age when cut down by assassination. He had reigned twenty-three years, and was on the eve of making war upon Persia. Beginning as the sovereign of a half barbaric kingdom beyond the pale of Greek civilization, he took advantage of the divided and hostile condition of the different states, also of the extreme bitterness of party feeling in the republic, to extend his influence. Gradually, by cunning diplomacy, downright bribery, and military genius, he extended his kingdom until at length he had gained ascendancy over all Greece. Some states he treated with deferential respect, but all had to bow to his sway, or at most, dared not openly antagonize him. Then he made known his purpose. He announced himself as the champion of the Greek cause against Persia. He called for men and means to carry on an aggressive war. Great enthusiasm prevailed. Had he lived he might have achieved universal empire. But as he entered a theater, just

prior to his intended departure for Persia, one Pausanias, who had a private grievance, cut him down.

Alexander was then only twenty years of age, but he had already distinguished himself in battle, and was at once chosen to succeed his father at the head of the Grecian expedition against Persia. There were some dissenters. His right to the crown of Macedonia was not disputed, but his headship of the confederate states of Greece was. He had some hard fighting on Grecian soil before he could set out for Asia. Thebes of Bœotia was the most stubborn of the free cities. He had to raze her to the very ground. "The boy of Pella," as he was derisively called, could not undertake foreign conquest until he had completely established home rule. He was not the conqueror of Greece, albeit the destroyer of one of her great cities. He made an example of Thebes to show what he might do, sparing Athens to show the paternity of his government, if only firm and secure.

The March of Alexander's Army.

Alexander came to the throne in B. C. 436, and two years later set out for Asia, leaving Greece, as it proved, forever. He had an army of only 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse. With that small band he undertook the conquest of the world, for the empire which he was to assail ruled the whole civilized world, outside of Greece and its offshoots, and the Asiatic portion of the latter. It is true that many Greeks preferred Persian friendship to Macedonian supremacy, and while the great soldier was fighting for Greek civilization, as he professed and as the event proved, Antipater, who had been left in charge of Alexander's affairs at home, found it hard work to maintain his ground. But Alexander freely supplied him with "the sinews of war" from the rich booty of Persian plunder, and so well did the vicegerent use his means, that the scepter of Macedon was more potent throughout Greece in the absence than in the presence of Alexander.

To follow the swift course of the warrior who ranks with Cæsar and Napoleon as one of the three greatest soldiers of all time, would be foreign to our purpose. Wherever he went victory followed. He met Darius and his army upon the open field, and it was Marathon and Salamis over again. The vast army was routed in a battle near Issus in B. C. 333, and a second and still larger army was defeated two years later near Arbela. During the intervening two years he had taken Tyre, received the homage of Egypt, and cast about "for more worlds to conquer." After the second battle he was undisputed master of all the Persian empire, but not ready by any means to stay his victorious course. He pressed on to India, everywhere victorious. He would probably have pushed on to the utmost verge of the Orient, but finally he was obliged to turn back. The soldiers who were invincible in battle were stubborn in refusing to go any farther. He found the hardships from thirst and hunger on the return march more terrible than "an army with banners." When he had returned to Susa, he married the daughter of Darius, and then began at Babylon the reconstruction of his empire, evidently intending to make that city his capital. But hardly had he begun this work, when he fell a victim to fever. He was only thirty-three years of age, and unlike Philip, he had no son old enough to take up and complete his designs. His empire fell to pieces, and his grand idea of Hellenizing the East (for he had evidently entertained such an idea, even if he had formed no definite plan) was never carried out, except in fragments. Alexandria, whose glory has been dwelt upon in a previous chapter, may be taken as a suggestion of the stupendous scheme which would have been undertaken had his life been spared.

It is not too much to say that the premature death of Alexander was a greater calamity to Asia

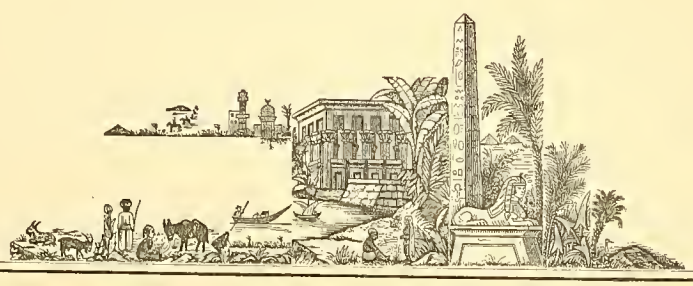
than any other event in all history. Greek civilization would have been established from the Ægean Sea to the Indian ocean, instead of being confined in its transplanting, to a small area. Not that that vast region would have been thoroughly permeated by it, of course, but that the Macedonian arms had plowed furrows through Southern Asia in which the seeds of civilization would doubtless have been planted, and brought forth fruit of incalculable importance. But if one were to consider only what Alexandria became in the world of thought, it must be conceded that Alexander at least doubled the power over mankind of the Greek intellect.

The Roman conquest of Greece was brought about largely by the dissensions of the Greeks themselves, especially by hostilities between the Achæans and the Ætolians. Philip of Macedonia (the last of the line) entered into an alliance with Hannibal against the Romans, and shared the fate of Carthage in point of subjugation, although the treatment of Greece by the Romans was always generous and chivalrous. Philip declared war against the Romans in B. C. 216, and in B. C. 146 occurred the battle of Leucopetra, which completed the dissolution of the last of the Greek Leagues, the Achæan, and henceforth Greece was under the yoke of Rome. The Senate, and afterwards the emperors, treated the fatherland of their own civilization with exceptional kindness. It was not until the Byzantine Empire placed its cruel foot upon the Greek neck, that all free institutions and popular rights were disregarded. As Schmitz well expresses it, "Greece, though conquered by the arms of the Romans, subdued them in turn by its vast superiority in the arts and in literature. The Romans themselves owned that they were the humble disciples of Greece; and that country in which we first meet in its full development with all that is noble and beautiful in man, is still the perennial spring at which we and all future generations may refresh our minds and drink intellectual inspiration."

Such are the really great and historic wars of Greece, but struggles of a later date deserve notice.

Modern Greece achieved independence through the sword. After the Turks were defeated by the Christians at Vienna in 1684 Greece was ravaged by the Venetians under Francesco Morosini. In 1687 Athens fell into the hands of the Christians. Terrible was the destruction incident to that siege. The Greeks were hardly a party to the conflict, it being a part of the war between the Venetians and the Turks, but none the less were Greek statuary and architecture the victims of the struggle. The Turks stored powder in the Parthenon, which exploded with desolating effect. That triumph, so dearly won, was lightly esteemed, and soon Greece once more groaned under the Turkish yoke.

The war of Independence began in 1821, and the last battle of that war was fought in Bœotia in October, 1829. In the first battle of this series Prince Alexander Ypselantes was defeated, but in the last his brother Demetrius won a brilliant victory over the Turk. It will be seen from a later chapter that Grecian nationality, as it now exists, rests upon foreign intervention, but it is none the less true that the Greeks of this nineteenth century fought for independence with a valor and heroism worthy of Marathon and Thermopylæ, and that Marco Botzaris, if not Demetrius Ypsilantes, deserves to rank with the foremost warriors of that people who could boast a Miltiades, a Leonidas, a Themistocles and an Alexander.

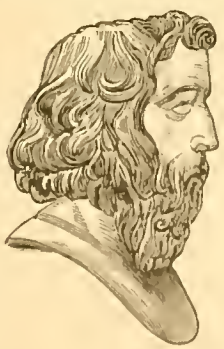


STATECRAFT IN GREECE.

CHAPTER XVI.

STATE RIGHTS IN GREECE—LYCURGUS AND HIS LAWS—THE SPARTAN MONARCHY—REPUBLICANISM AND THE LAWS OF DRACO—SOLON AND ATHENS—THE CONSTITUTION AND ITS LEADING FEATURES—SOLON AND LYCURGUS COMPARED—CLENISTHENES AND DEMOCRACY—PERICLES, THE STATESMAN AND HIS GENERAL INFLUENCES—THE FOUR LEAGUES AND GAMES—THEIR CHARACTER AND INFLUENCES—THE POWER OF THE LEAGUES—THE DELPHIC ORACLE AND PYTHIA THE PRIESTESS.

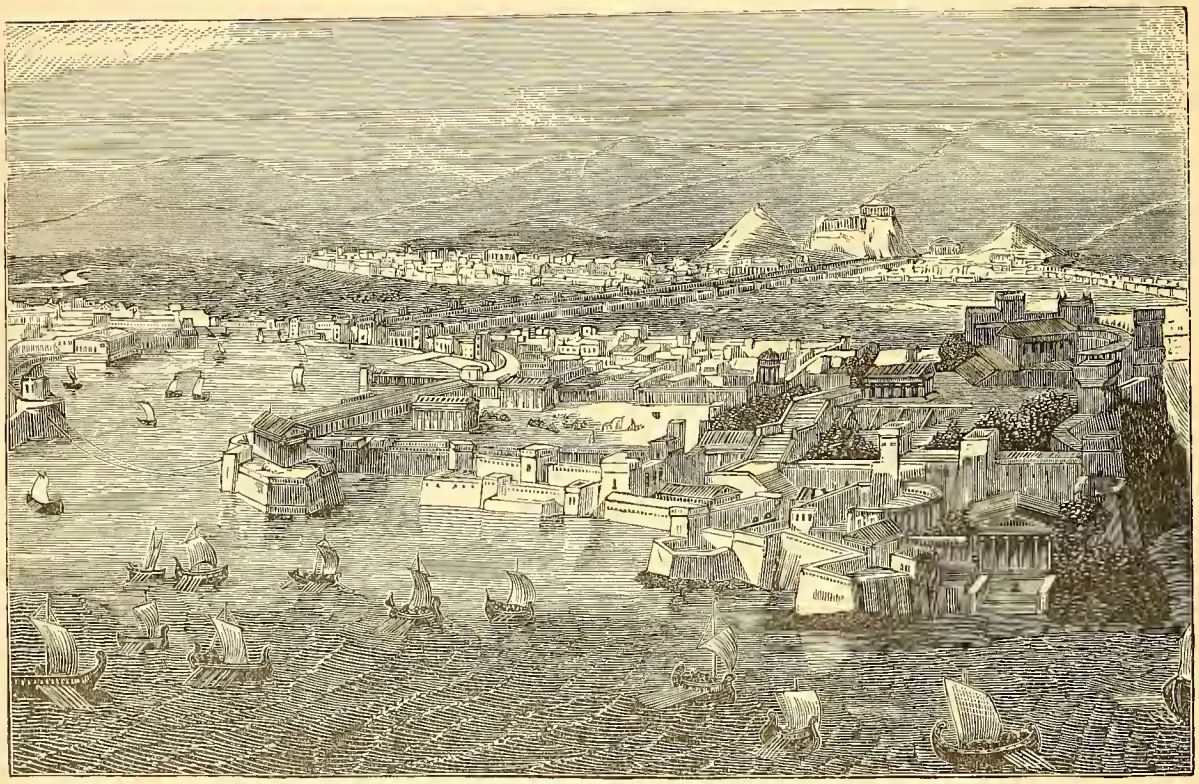
GREECE was indeed the victim of what in this country might be called the Calhoun doctrine, but she was not without great statesmen. The science of government was carried to a high degree of perfection, although upon a small scale. A "pent-up Utica" did, it is true, contract the powers of the lawgivers, but they achieved greatness, and deserve the prominence of a chapter devoted to their exclusive consideration.



Lycurgus.

The first if not the greatest of the lawgivers was Lycurgus. In the Homeric poems we see statecraft hardly above tribal chieftainship. Lycurgus, who had probably been a student of law in Egypt, gave to Sparta a body of laws, or system of government, which ultimately raised it to the supremacy, not only over the other Dorian states of Peloponnesus, but over the whole of Greece. It was not the aim of Lycurgus to make the people happy or virtuous, but the state strong. The date of his work is uncertain. Some place it as early as B. C. 1100, others as late as B. C. 880. The latter is supported by the better authorities. The age of Homer and Hesiod is from B. C. 900 to B. C. 800. Obviously, then, the name Lycurgus stands rather for a body of laws borrowed largely from the Delta, than for an individual. Not that it was entirely an exotic by any means, but that the indigenous root was fertilized by the loam of the Nile. It was claimed for the laws of Lycurgus, as for those of Moses, that they were the direct gift of Deity, and both were written upon tables of stone. Like Moses, too, he is supposed to have gone off by himself to die, hoping thereby to strengthen the authority of his enactments. The territory tributary to Sparta, forming with it the State of Lacaonia, was, according to Plutarch, divided into 39,000 sections, of which 9,000 were given to as many landed aristocrats of the city, and the rest to free subjects of the state: but these details are not historically correct. It is only ascertainable that the land was divided among the people in such a way as to form three distinct castes, namely, the Dorians of Sparta: their serfs, or Helots: and

the subject people, or peasantry, of the provincial district. All political power was monopolized by the aristocracy of the city. Deprivation was also exemption and privilege to some extent, for the peasantry were also the merchants and manufacturers of the country, and were not considered to be in the perpetual service of the state, as the aristocracy were. The latter were wholly given to politics and war. The Helots were treated with the utmost severity. They were "fixtures" and could not be sold off the farm or the household. They were serfs, but not slaves. A people who were unsparing in rigor toward themselves, would, as a matter of course, be pitiless in their treatment of subordinates. The real reins of government were held by the senate, as in the republican days of Rome, but royalty was maintained in theory.



OLD ATHENS AS VIEWED FROM PIRÆUS.

The peculiarity of the Spartan monarchy was, that two kings occupied the throne, a custom supposed to have arisen from the fact that Aristodemus left twin sons. These two kings corresponded to the two consuls of Rome. The kings were chief priests and chief justices, but not sovereigns in any proper sense of the term. Courage was the one virtue held in unlimited esteem. It was the deification of the martial spirit. The story told of the Spartan youth who stole a fox, is doubtless fabulous, but eminently characteristic. Rather than disclose what he had done, he allowed the fox, which was hidden in his breast, to gnaw his vitals. To steal was all right, but to be caught at it or found out in it all wrong. The commerce of the country was quite limited. Iron was the only currency, and it is said that this financial policy was adopted and maintained for the purpose of discouraging business enterprise. This restriction applied, however, only to the higher class and the city. The provincials were left free in their traffic.

Evidently, the spirit of the heroic age was perpetuated at Sparta as nowhere else, although in the Homeric verse no special pre-eminence was given to that state. Helen was indeed the queen of that kingdom, but her husband, Menelaus, was by no means the hero of the war. His brother, Agamem-

non, was the chief, elected to that position by the suffrages of his peers. But in historic times the heroic age survived mainly in Sparta, and that, on account of the martial character of her constitution. In all the states of Greece except Sparta, royalty was abolished about the same time, and at a very early day, and in Sparta even, the semblance only remained. By far the most important of these states was Athens, or Attica; the latter being the name of the territory. The people are generally called Athenians, sometimes Ionians, but rarely Atticans. Theseus is said to have given the Athenians their first political institutions. He divided the people into three classes; the aristocracy, the husbandmen, and the artisans, the two latter classes having no voice in the government. A new constitution was given to the state by Draco, B. C. 624. His was the first written law of Attica. It is proverbial for its severity and is said to have been written in blood. The evident design of this conservative law-maker was to repress the rising power of the common people and conserve the "vested rights" of the favored few. His personal unpopularity, under the operation of his code, was such that he had to seek safety in flight. The popular discontent found expression in sedition and strife. Finally, after a turbulent and futile struggle for existence, the legislation of Draco succumbed and gave place to the laws of Solon, a legislator so wise that his name is a standing synonym for statesmanship.

Solon.

Enriched in intelligence and purse by foreign travel and commerce, Solon also had the advantage of military prestige. He called to his aid Epimenides of Crete, a far-famed sage. He imposed restraints upon the profuse expenses of the temple and funeral obsequies. That was Epimenides' part of the reform, but these improvements did not go to the roots of things. The great trouble was the unjust distribution of land. The aristocracy held the more fertile plains, and derived the chief advantage from agriculture, without doing any of the work. The unrest was so great, and the dissatisfaction with the code of Draco so general, that in B. C. 594, Solon was made Archon with ample authority to revise the laws. He was constituted a constitutional convention and legislature, all in one. He did not abuse his opportunity. He was the first George Washington of history. His first work was to abolish imprisonment and slavery for debt. He also reduced the rate of interest, and virtually scaled down debts by debasing the coin. Solon was a friend of the poor without being a demagogue. He abolished capital punishment, except for murder. He admitted foreigners to citizenship. He was, perhaps, the father of naturalization laws, the first great protector of immigration. He conciliated the rich by requiring a property test in suffrage. The people were divided into four classes according to property qualifications, with a graduated scale of rights and privileges. He thus put a premium upon enterprise in business. The property available for political elevation, however, was realty. The magistrates, to whatever class belonging, were responsible to the whole people, and not merely to their own classes. There were two legislative bodies, one being the Council of Four Hundred, corresponding to our Senate, and the other, the Areopagus, corresponding to a New England town-meeting, or Russian Mir. The latter certainly existed before his day, however it may have been with the former, but it was modified by him, and set in its place as one of the institutions of popular sovereignty. The ordinary public assembly was held once a month, the number necessary to a quorum not being definitely fixed, but six thousand was regarded as a small meeting.

Solon devised a curious way to supervise and hold in check the radicalism or carelessness of the Areopagus. Instead of a supreme bench composed of a few elderly lawyers, with the power of nullification by which they could set aside a law as unconstitutional, he provided a supreme court consisting of six thousand, with authority to set aside any popular enactment inconsistent with the established ordinances of the state. He did not attempt, however, to prevent all alterations. He devised a plan for amending the constitution which was substantially the same as the one which now prevails in this country. At the first popular assembly each year, one member of the body politic had a right to propose a change in the established laws. At the third ordinary meeting the subject was brought up again and a committee appointed by lot from the

supreme court, or heliæa of 6,000, to investigate the matter and decide upon its adoption or rejection. This variation from the prevailing system of this country, does not go to the heart of the matter Solon may be called the father of flexible constitutions. He contemplated no distinctions between judge and jury, nor a body of professional lawyers. Demosthenes, the greatest of all advocates and prosecutors, was a "layman." A body of arbitrators (men over sixty years of age) was created to try private law-suits, and from the decision rendered no appeal could be taken. For public offenses, crimes, the law provided the council of Areopagus, and this criminal court was conducted with all the solemnities of oaths. A majority convicted, but if there was a tie vote, the herald cast "the vote of Athena" in favor of acquittal, on the principle that the accused is entitled to the benefit of the doubt.

Lycurgus was far more specific in his code than Solon was. The greater of these two statesmen left much to the authority of the people. He must have been thoroughly democratic, a Jefferson rather than a Hamilton. His code began to take cognizance of the individual at sixteen, but up to that age the child was subject exclusively to parental authority. From sixteen to eighteen the Athenian youth was obliged to submit to the training of the gymnasium, a school for both brain and brawn. At eighteen he was regarded as having reached majority, and was an "infant" no longer. He could hold property and vote, although full citizenship was not attained before the twentieth year. Military service was required between the ages of eighteen and sixty. As regards women, Solon sought to curb licentiousness and extravagance, rather than to elevate the sex and enlarge its sphere, in the modern sense of the term. His ideal woman was a domestic drudge, pure and simple. He was not, however, inclined to require the women to stay at home quite so closely as they were obliged to do at a later period in the history of Athens. His code was designed to ameliorate somewhat the hardships of a slave. He encouraged the maintenance of a strong navy for the protection of commerce. Solon is supposed to have died B. C. 559.

Clenisthenes introduced some important changes in the Athenian constitution half a century later, which increased the power of the people, but he displayed no genius for statecraft at all comparable to that of the great names mentioned. Aristides and Themistocles were great political lawyers in their day, as were Ephialtes, who deprived the Areopagus of a great deal of its power, and Thucydides, who was the leader of the aristocracy, and Alcibiades, a subsequent leader of the popular party. But none of these politicians deserve rank with Lycurgus and Solon. The only other name in Greek annals worthy of association with them is that of

Pericles and Aspasia.

Pericles whose name and fame can not be disassociated from Aspasia, the beautiful, accomplished and brilliant companion of his joys and labors. He was not so much a great law-maker as a great executive officer. His genius was equal to theirs, and was as truly a glory to statecraft. Pericles rose to eminence upon the ruin of Miltiades, of whom we heard in connection with Marathon. Of the hero of that most glorious victory of Grecian arms, it is enough to say here that he was inclined to absolutism in government, and fell a victim to the strength of the doctrine of popular sovereignty. Pericles was the acknowledged leader of the democracy, although of the most aristocratic descent. He sought to accomplish two objects; first, to make Greece one nation, with Athens as its political and commercial capital; and second, to make the republic a government by the people, rather than a government by and for an oligarchy. He provided compensation for public service, such as serving on the jury and even for attending the worship of the gods. He also gave employment to the poor out of the treasury of the public. It was in his day that Athenian art reached its loftiest heights, and the Grecian glory shone brightest. He was the first

and the last broadly national statesman of Greece. Lycurgus was a Spartan, Solon an Athenian, Alexander a barbarian, Pericles a Greek, in the fullest sense of the term.

Pericles succeeded in making his views so far understood and appreciated at Athens, that he was the master spirit of Attica until the day of his death, but he could not carry out his general plan. Sparta adhered, with the tenacity of South Carolina, to the doctrine of state sovereignty and hostility to centralization. War ensued, in the course of which Pericles died. In that great struggle, the Peloponnesian war, Athens stood for the doctrine of the union of Greece (not its preservation, but its establishment), and in the failure of the national party, a death-blow was given to the political supremacy of Greece in the intellectual world. Pericles sought by statecraft, rather than by force, to unify the Greeks. What he could not do, Alexander might have done, but showed no disposition to do. Had he lived to reconstruct Greece, he might have consolidated it into one nation, but it would have been on the Macedonian, rather than on the Athenian plan. His ambition was military and had foreign conquest as its chief aim, while the greater Pericles tried to develop Greece to the fullest possible extent. A higher statesmanship could not be conceived, at least no higher ideal has ever been realized. Although he failed to carry out his plan in all its grandeur, he succeeded in developing at Athens a splendor which has never been equaled anywhere else in all that makes real culture. To this day no city in literature or art can seek higher honor than to be called a Modern Athens. The statesmanship of Pericles rendered possible those matchless attainments in esthetic civilization.

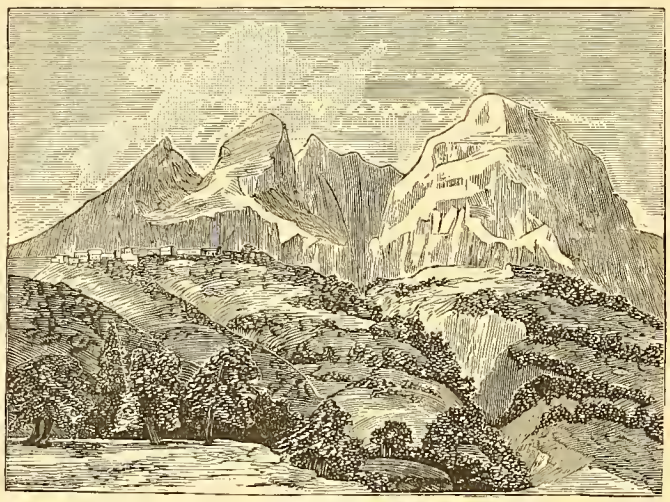
Looking at the matter from an American point of view, there could hardly be anything more incongruous, than to couple the political associations of independent states composed of kindred people, with the pastimes of that people. If in writing of the United States, one should devote a chapter to "Federal Relations and Base Ball," the inference would be that the writer was either idiotic or insane. They represent the extremes in point of importance. With us, the "National game" has nothing whatever to do with nationality. But the Greeks were a very different people from ourselves. Their national games were not played by a few hired men, gazed upon by spectators who, for the most part, would scorn to take part in the game, even though assured of the championship. On the contrary, the pastimes of the Greeks had a rank and significance, giving to them a really first-class position, even in universal history. They brought all sections together on a common and really national level. Taken collectively, they form the true Panhellenia (*Pan* being the Greek for *all*), and to omit them would be to overlook a fundamental feature of the national life of the Greeks.

There were four leagues or confederacies in Greece at different times: the Arcadian, the Amphictrionic, the Achæan and the Ætolian. The games were also four: the Olympic, the Isthmian, the Nemean and the Pythian. There were other similar games, only on a smaller scale, in other parts of Greece, sustaining to the great games much the same relation that a county fair does to an inter-state or international exposition.

To these festive occasions, any Greek was welcome, and was guaranteed immunity from assault, going and coming, however hostile any state through which he traveled might be to the state of which he was a citizen. None but pure Hellenists could compete in any of these games. Even Alexander the Great was denied the privilege, although in later years Tiberius and Nero, Roman Emperors, bore off Olympian prizes. The different names of the four great games were suggested by their location, the first being on the plain of Olympia, the second on the isthmus of Corinth, the third on the Nemean plain, and the fourth at Pythia.

The games were all alike in main feature, only that the first was the chief. There were chariot races, foot races and other athletic sports, literary entertainments and music. They blended worship with physical and intellectual gymnastics. The prizes had no intrinsic value, being a wreath of laurels or other leaves, but they were esteemed more highly than gold, and proved incalculably stimulative to the culture of body and mind. The Greeks reckoned time by the Olympic games, which occurred once in four years. The founding of these games dates back of history and is shrouded in mystery, but the historic period of their existence extends over a thousand years, namely, from about B. C. 650 to A. D. 450, when the influence of the Christian church secured their abolition. They

had, however, declined seriously before that time. Of the leagues of Greece, the most important was the Amphictyonic, whose origin was mythical. There were several Amphictyons, or conventions, but *the* Amphictyon met at Delphi in the spring, at Anthela in the autumn, a town within the pass of Thermopylæ, where stood a temple of Delmeter. Its objects were twofold,—to guard the temple of Apollo, at Delphi, and to restrain the mutual violence among the states belonging to the confederacy. The latter object was not attained to anything like a satisfactory extent. The temple, however, was preserved with religious sacredness. Its oracle was held in the very highest esteem by the Greeks everywhere, and later, by the Romans, but its immediate custody was intrusted to the citizens of Delphi. The chief city of Delphi, Crissa, was utterly destroyed by the allied forces of Greece, in the sixth century before Christ, for the practice of extortion upon the visitors to the Delphic Oracle. For ten years that holy war was waged. The oracles were generally couched in the most obscure language, and were given out by a chief priestess called the Pythia. The temple was a vast treasure-house. It was sometimes despoiled, or in part depleted, but such levies were considered as sacrilegious in the highest degree. It was not till Christianity displaced the classic superstitions, that this oracle ceased to exert a powerful influence.



View of Delphi and Mount Parnassus.

The mountain at the foot of which the Delphic oracles were uttered is in some respects the most famous in the world. It was sacred in the classic era to the muses. Thence the sacred Nine were fabled to take their flights, and Mount Parnassus yielded inspiration to the poet. To climb its rugged heights, drink of its springs, and breathe its rare and exhilarating air, filled the mind with poetical fancies. With Helicon, Cithæron and Parnassus, it nearly enclosed the Bœotian valley. Not as lofty as Pelion and Ossa, nor so august as Olympus, it is none the less true that surrounding it cluster associations which render it one of the most memorable peaks on the globe. One of the so-called Homeric hymns gives the legendary account of the founding of this temple: Apollo slew upon that spot a terrible dragon, then guided thither a Cretan ship, directing the crew of it to establish themselves there. "The whole land," said they, "is bare and desolate, and whence shall we get food?" To this Apollo replied, "Foolish men, stretch forth your hands each day and slay each day the rich offerings, for they shall come to you without stint or sparing, seeing that the sons of men shall hasten hither to learn my will. Only guard ye well the temple I have reared, for if ye deal rightly, no man shall take away your glory; but if ye speak lies or do iniquity, if ye hurt the people who come to my altar and make them go astray, then shall other men rise up in your place and ye shall be thrust out forever." This legend was the strongest possible safeguard against personal violence to visitors; but so cunningly deceptive were the responses of that oracle that Delphic came to be a synonym for statements capable of various interpretations and utterly elusive of definite understanding.

GREEK CLASSIC LITERATURE.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE TERM CLASSIC AND TRADITIONAL AUTHORS—HOMER AND HIS PLACE IN LITERATURE—HESIOD, ÆSOP AND OTHER EPIC AND DIDACTIC POETS—SAPPHO, PINDAR, AND THE LYRISTS—THE DRAMA—THE DRAMATISTS AND ATTICA—ÆSCHELUS—SOPHOCLES AND EURIPIDES—ARISTOPHANES AND GREEK COMEDY—GREEK PROSE—HERODOTUS—ZENOPHON—PLATO, ARISTOTLE AND PHILOSOPHICAL LITERATURE—DEMOSTHENES AND ORATORY IN LITERATURE—THE IMMORTAL TWELVE.

THE term "classic" was used originally to designate the surviving Greek and Roman literature. It is often used to designate the more permanent and valuable portion of our own or any other literature. In attempting to give an idea of the subject in hand for this chapter, it will be necessary to adopt the method admitting of the greatest brevity. There are no less than one hundred and twenty-seven names in the list of Greek classics. Some of these authors are known to us only in brief fragments, quotations found in later writings. A few are merely alluded to, and the name itself may designate a class rather than an individual. There are six which belong to the age of fable, and may be as mythical as the Muses, namely, Orpheus, Eumolpus, Thamyris, Olen, Chrysothemis, and Philammon. The fragments which remain and are attributed to them may be, and probably are, the waifs from a traditional folk-lore.

The first historic name is that of Homer. For a long time his personality was in dispute, and even now seven cities claim his birth. He was a native of the isle of Scio or Asia Minor, but none the less a Greek. He was the father of Epic poetry, and paradoxical as it may seem, it is none the less true, that an Asiatic wrote the oldest European work (prose or poetry) extant. He may well be called the father of European literature. For a long time, probably for centuries, his Iliad and Odyssey were preserved by being memorized and repeated on festive occasions. The people held those marvelous stories of gods and men mingling in the affairs of earth, in much the same reverence that a devout worshiper of Jehovah and Jesus does the Old and the New Testaments, and we find Plato opposed to the reading of Homer in the public schools of his ideal republic on that very account. The nature of these stories has been stated under the head of the "Heroic Age." St. Augustine well said of Homer, "he stands alone and aloft on Parnassus, where it is not possible now that any human genius should stand with him, the father and prince of all heroic poets, the boast and the glory of his own Greece, and the love and admiration of mankind." Some fifty hymns, once attributed to him, have been pronounced by later scholarship apocryphal. His name will remain

embodied in the hearts of men to the end of time. Another great name in Greek literature is Hesiod. Born in Bœotia, he was an Asiatic Greek by descent. He lived about 900 years before Christ. He sang in dull, prosaic verse, of the evils of his times, and the grotesque theogony of Greece was set to music in a clumsy fashion. His works are not much read, nor do they deserve to be. His "Works and Days" is a tedious bucolic. He is classed as the earliest, but by no means as the first, of didactic poets. In this list of elaborate poets, epic and didactic, figure Arctinus of Miletus, Lesches of Lesbos, Agias of Trœzen, Eumelus of Corinth, and Strasinus of Cyprus, whose productions have been lost. Under the head of elegiac and iambic poets, are mentioned eight names, varying in date from B. C. 720 to B. C. 594, nothing remaining from any of them, of any consequence, except Æsop, who is supposed by Plutarch to have been born in B. C. 620, but who is now generally regarded as a myth. The fables which bear his name are believed to have been imported from India and Egypt, for the most part, some few being indigenous to the soil. They are certainly the very essence of common sense, generally read in these days in Latin or English prose.

Greeks of the Classic Period.

The next order or school of Greek poetry was the lyric. Several names, unworthy of more than mere reference, survive in fragments. Two names stand out conspicuous, Sappho and Pindar. Only fragments remain of the former, and a small part of the works of the latter. Sappho was a woman of Lesbos, born in B. C. 610. She had a wonderfully gifted mind, and was the first to raise her sex to literary eminence. The Lesbian women were much given to study and culture. The loss of her writings is greatly to be deplored. Her only peer in ancient lyrics was Pindar of Cynocephalæ, a village near Thebes. He was born in B. C. 517. Undoubtedly he was the greatest poet in his time of antiquity, and it is a matter of rejoicing that some of his verse is still extant, although the greater and probably the better part perished utterly. We have now forty-five of his odes. He had sublimity, elegance, energy and pathos in a high degree.

Pindar.

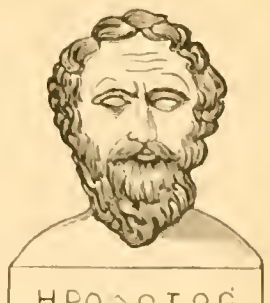
We come now to the drama. Fortunately much more of the Greek drama remains than of the minor poems. Three great names stand out second only to Homer, and among the dramatists of the world second only to Shakspeare. They are Æschylus, Sophocles and Euripides. The others simply swell the catalogue of Greek authors, without contributing to the value of extant classic literature. The drama may be called a Greek invention, and it was not until Shakspeare's appearance upon the stage, that anything at all approaching the original models in merit was produced, and the continental critics were slow in admitting the "Bard of Avon," because he disregarded the Greek pattern. The Semitic families had no drama, properly speaking. The Greek drama is distinctively Attic. Æschylus and Euripides, Sophocles and Aristophanes, were all born in Attica. The times of Pericles witnessed the highest dramatic attainment.

Æschylus, a soldier of Marathon and Salamis, wrote seventy tragedies, of which seven remain. He was the "Father of Tragedy." For his impiety he

was banished. Genius is rarely popular when it deals with theology, and the Greek drama was essentially religious. His greatest work extant is "Prometheus Bound." It represents the Supreme Being as infinitely indignant at Prometheus for being compassionate. Seeing man in his emergence from the brute, capable of making some use of fire, yet destitute of it, he introduced that primitive element of civilization. Zeus had him bound to a rock, and every day a vulture gnawed at his vitals, and at night they were restored only to keep up the eternal procession of agony. There is an awful sublimity in this tragedy. It has been compared to the Hebraic account of the way man was first set upon the path of knowledge by the influence of Satan, who thenceforth was cursed with the enmity of the very race he had initiated into knowledge. Others have compared Prometheus in his sublime philanthropy (for he knew what fate awaited him) to Jesus on the cross. Two of the three original Promethean trilogy have been lost. The story of Agamemnon's sacrifice of his daughter Iphigenia, the revenge of Clytemnestra therefor, and the awful revenge of Orestes, the son of Agamemnon, upon his mother, for the murder of the great king when he returned from Troy, are all set forth by Æschylus. The doctrine of fate, terrible, relentless, and hopeless, is set forth with lurid vividness. Sophocles, who was ten years the junior of Æschylus, was less bold and vigorous, but more beautiful and exquisite. He also was a soldier, but his military record was not brilliant. He wrote one hundred and thirteen tragedies. Seven only have survived to us. His "Œdipus Tyrannus" is the most famous of his tragedies, but there is a depth of pathos in "Antigone," "Œdipus at Colonos," and "Electra," which could hardly be surpassed. Euripides, born only five years later, was an aristocrat, as his dramas plainly indicate. He wrote at least seventy-five tragedies, some say ninety-two, eighteen of which are now extant. They are mostly devoted to the exploits of the heroic age. Thus we have from three dramatists born in Athens or its suburbs, within the same generation, at least two hundred and fifty-eight tragedies, of which there are now extant thirty-two.

Comedy among the Greeks took the place somewhat of the press. It was personal and related to current men and measures. They pleased the many by their flings and stings, directed against the conspicuous few. The Athenians had no newspapers to lampoon public men, but they had a vast out-door theater which held thirty thousand people. The price of admission was seven cents. The theatrical season was during the months of December, January, February and March. The solemn awfulness of the tragedies was relieved by the commedians, who were the hornets of society, to use an illustration suggested by one of the best surviving comedies. The list of comedy contains the names of ten dramatists, but no play of any in the list has survived, except eleven of the fifty-four plays of Aristophanes, who was born in Athens B. C. 444. About a century before his time, flourished three noted writers of comedy: Epicharmus, Phormio and Dinolochus. A little later came Chionides and Cratinus. Aristophanes had two brilliant cotemporaries, Eupolis and Crates. In these extant comedies we have sharp criticisms of Pericles, broad caricatures of Socrates, the first ridicule of woman's rights, and revolting pictures of social corruption.

We turn now to prose. The earliest trace of this style of composition is Periander of Corinth (B. C. 627). He ruled that city for more than forty years. His edicts were, some of them, reduced to writing. They were long since lost. The names, and in some cases, a few fragments, are preserved of twenty writers of Greek prose, during the period from the days of Periander to the birth of the drama. Two of these, Thales and Pythagoras, deserve mention. They wrought grandly in the domain of philosophy. The former studied faithfully in Egypt, and may be said to have established the connection between Coptic knowledge and Hellenic wisdom. There were a few historians in that early period, but Herodotus was the first to write anything really worthy that designation. He was born at Halicarnassus in 484. He was a narrator of what he saw and heard, credulous and unsophisticated. He traveled almost everywhere, and in his works, happily extant, he dwells upon the countries he visited, rather than upon personal experiences. He was a model pen photographer. It is generally supposed that the world lost



Herodotus.

nothing in the extinction of the so-called historical works of those who went before him. Indeed, Greek prose seems to have been exceedingly fortunate in the "survival of the fittest." Next to Herodotus, and greater than he in intellectual power and literary skill, stands Thucydides, the inventor of philosophical history. He was an Athenian of the aristocratic class. His history of the Peloponnesian war is a masterpiece, and that more from the elaborate political speeches embodied in it than for the history itself. It is safe to say, that until within a hundred years, no superior historian was ever produced. He preserved the martial exploits and political controversies of those times, forgetful of the people in the every-day affairs of life.

Thucydides.

A long list of other military historians might be given, the wars of Alexander the Great having been a favorite theme, but those works perished long ago, except only the writings of Xenophon, an Athenian, who was born in B. C. 444. He was a voluminous writer, a friend and disciple of Socrates, his productions being of two distinct classes, historical and philosophical. His Anabasis relates to the expedition of the Greeks of Asia Minor who accompanied Cyrus the Younger, in his ill-starred expedition to Babylon, and especially of their retreat, which his elegant Greek has rendered immortal. No classic prose is more widely read as a text-book than the Anabasis. Xenophon's philosophical works have at their head "The Memorabilia of Socrates," a series of dialogues between the supreme philosopher and his pupils. It is not too much to say that "The Memorabilia," "The Economics," "The Banquet of the Philosophers," and "The Apology of Socrates," all from the pen of Xenophon, are to his great teacher much what the four Gospels are to Jesus Christ. If Plato was his St. Paul, Xenophon was all his evangelists in one. Neither Jesus nor Socrates, those great founders of distinct schools of thought, ever wrote a word, but were particularly fortunate in their literary friends. Plato will always stand at the very front of philosophical writers. His works were voluminous and in the form of dialogues. They display the subtlety and power of analysis, for which the Greeks were pre-eminent. They are exceedingly profound and hard to understand. His ideal republic, "The Atlantis," is the model of all the ideal states in literature, and by hundreds of communities started by dreamers of Utopia. It is communistic in its fundamental principle. It makes the state everything, the individual nothing. Even the family was to be wiped out, and in its place was to be sterpiculture, on the same scientific basis as "pedigreed" cattle and horses are raised. It was not until two thousand years later that any serious attempt was made to carry out the Platonic theory. It was with him and his admirers a mere theory, a curious speculation. He was born at Athens in B. C. 429, making him forty years younger than Socrates, and about that much older than Aristotle, who, with him and Socrates, rank as the three great philosophers of the classic age. It was not until Bacon's genius dawned upon the world that they had a peer in any land or time. A Macedonian by birth, an Athenian by education, Aristotle has left us most erudite and philosophical disquisitions on logic, metaphysics, physics, ethics, rhetoric and poetry as an art.

Xenophon.

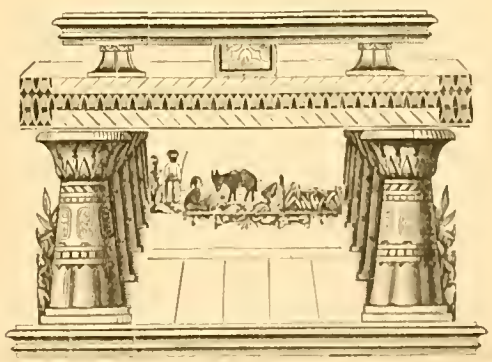
It remains to speak of only one more branch of literature. There are some noted names in philosophy, which do not belong in a literary *resume.* This remaining branch of prose classics is oratory. Eloquence is one of the great features of Greek literature. The heroes of Homer, and the politicians and generals of Thucydides, were all orators. Republican institutions favor the development of the art of persuasion. The list of Greek orators whose fame has come down to us contains eleven names, all except one being Athenians. That solitary exception was Dinarchus, a Corinthian. He was educated, however, at Athens, and resided there, and is generally numbered among "the Attic Canon." Judging from the few addresses preserved, he was hardly deserving the title of ora-

tor. Antiphon (B. C. 479) must have been a great criminal lawyer, for although there was no distinct profession of law, the orators were, to all intents and purposes, lawyers, as well as politicians. About ten years later came Andocides, whose three excellent orations are admirable in their simplicity. A decade later still came Lysias. He was a very prolific writer of public addresses. Mention of him is frequently made in ancient writings, and his surviving orations show him to have been a man of marvelous power. Isocrates, twenty years later, was a teacher of oratory, rather than an orator. He was too timid to exercise his art freely. In this connection may be mentioned the fact, that about the middle of the fifth century before Christ, the first treatises on rhetoric and oratory known to have been written in the Greek language, were produced in Sicily by Corax, Tisias and Gorgias, the latter having transported the art to Athens, and founded the first school of eloquence and composition in Attica and Greece proper. Besides Isocrates there was Isæus, who did much as a professor of elocution. Æschines, of whose orations we have only three, was a cotemporary and rival of Demosthenes. Cicero and Quintilian pronounced him almost equal to Demosthenes. Hyperides (B. C. 396) was also compared with Demosthenes. We have no specimens of his eloquence.

The one supreme name in Greek oratory not only, but in the entire art of eloquence, is the one last mentioned. Demosthenes was born in the Attic town of Pæonia, B. C. 385. He had some serious natural defects of speech to overcome. His first attempt at oratory was a failure. But he was not discouraged. His physical infirmity, stammering, was overcome, or turned to positive advantage. His powers of persuasion were almost irresistible, even with a people as intelligent as the Athenians. He was a master of invective. His orations against Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, have been for more than two thousand years, a synonym for invective discourse. "Philippics" is the familiar name for that class of orations. His series of speeches called "Concerning the Crown," are admirably judicious and lofty in tone. We have sixty of his addresses, and they have been of incalculable importance as models of oratory, studied and practical in all civilized lands almost ever since they were pronounced. A coward in battle, he was a true hero in debate, and a wise counselor. The claims and merits of Demosthenes, as they have come to be estimated by the settled judgment of mankind, may be stated thus: 1. Purity in ethical character; 2. Intellectual mastery of the subject in hand; 3. The magic force of felicitous language, thanks partly to his own genius, and partly to the matchless beauty of the Greek tongue; 4. Freedom from all bombast, concise, fluent, sweet and impressive.

Demosthenes.

Having taken a hasty glance at Greek literature, we may sum up by giving the list of extant authors, upon whom rests the fame of that literature, and who will continue to be read and admired in all ages: Homer, Pindar, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides and Aristophanes; Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Plato, Aristotle, and Demosthenes. They are the immortal twelve of Greek classic literature.



GREEK PHILOSOPHY AND ART.

CHAPTER XVIII.

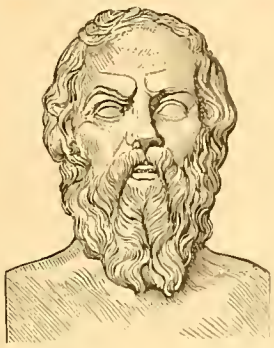
THE GREEKS AND ABSTRUSE THOUGHT—THALES AND PYTHAGORAS—SOCRATES AND HIS PHILOSOPHY—PLATO AND ARISTOTLE—THEIR PLACE IN PHILOSOPHY—EPICUREANS AND STOICS—THE CYNICS—PYRRHO AND SKEPTICISM—NEOPLATONISM—THE USES OF GREEK PHILOSOPHY—PAINTING AND SCULPTURE—THE LAOCOÖN AND OLYMPIAN ZEUS—PRAXITELES AND PHIDIAS—THE PARTHENON AND THE ACROPOLIS—THE THREE ORDERS OF GRECIAN ARCHITECTURE—INDEBTEDNESS OF ROME AND THE REST OF THE WORLD TO GRECIAN ARCHITECTURE—THE ELGIN MARBLES.

IT is safe to say that the philosophy of the Greeks embraces all ancient philosophy, if not the germs of all modern secular speculation. The Egyptians and the profound thinkers of India were theologians. Their problems were more religious than metaphysical. The latest intellectual development in Egypt was a growth from Hellenistic seed. In treating of Alexandria, some reference was made to philosophy and philosophers, but in taking a view of philosophy in its entirety, it must be conceded upon the threshold that the glory and the features of abstract thought belong to that marvelous people, the Greeks. It was not until Bacon revolutionized philosophy, that any really independent and important step was taken outside the Greek limitations. Medieval scholastics, Abelard the orthodox and Bruno the heretic, were none of them philosophers. The more than royal line which began with Thales of Miletus, and closed with Proclus of Alexandria, held sway in speculative thought, unrivaled and almost undisturbed, fading out at last through sheer exhaustion. The period of this dynasty was about a thousand years, for Thales was born in B. C. 636, and Proclus in A. D. 412. To present within the compass of one chapter the history of such a period and phase of intellectual activity, is the task now in hand.

Thales founded a school, or class of philosophers, who were determined to solve the mystery of origin. He saw in water the all-pervasive element, the substratum of things. Some of his disciples substituted fire for water; others air. The greatest of these early searchers after the First Cause was Pythagoras. He it was, probably, who enriched Greek thought with Egyptian science, especially mathematics. It was hoped by using "the wisdom of the Egyptians" as a ladder, to climb into heaven and discover the supreme mystery of earth. Pythagoras taught the transmigration of the soul, the eternal procession of existence, in ever-varying forms. With all the help, however, of Egypt, the Greeks made very little progress before the days of Socrates. The enthusiastic, persistent, and profound study of abstractions, was a wonderful discipline. For that long period the Greek mind was being trained in a gymnasium of thought. Aside from the mental discipline derived, no benefits resulted. The direct fruit of all that long labor was sophistry, the use of reason and logic as an exhibition of intellectual skill. Had the entire

fruitage stopped there, the Greek philosophy would have been an unmitigated failure. But it did not.

The training of the mind for so long a time culminated in producing Socrates, who was born in Athens B. C. 470. He found philosophy a jumble of negations and pretentious assumptions. The learned looked down with lofty contempt upon the common people, who saw in occurrences the interposition of a personal deity. As regards the popular theories of cause and effect, the philosophers were infidels. Socrates agreed with them in their denials, but was not content to rest in mere negation. In the "Clouds," Aristophanes ridicules the substitution of "ethereal rotation" for deity, much as an orthodox clergyman of to-day denounces the substitution of evolution for creation; but that substitution was not the distinctive peculiarity of Socrates, by any means. He taught, rather, that the study of Nature was a waste of time. "Man, know thyself," was his motto. He was the father of deductive philosophy, and with him also began an era of accuracy in thought and expression. He was fond of leading his pupils to see their ignorance and appreciate definiteness of ideas. His method was by questioning them. The term "Socratic" is suggestive of interrogation points. But appreciation of ignorance and a start in the direction of knowledge, had for their final object, moral instruction. He was a philosophical moralist. So important was this latter work that it has been said that "individual conscience and personal decision date from the epoch of Socrates, and their growth from that time is the progress of the world-history." He was a man of very marked eccentricities. Plain, ill-shapen and outspoken, he was utterly indifferent about dress. His wife, Xantippe, had no patience with his dreamy indifference to practical matters, and has come down to the world pilloried as the great scold. No doubt she had cause for her impatience. He was too indolent to even write out his views, leaving that to Plato and Xenophon, who either contented themselves with developing the Socratic ideas, or were so very modest that they attributed to their teacher ideas which were really their own. In his old age, the great teacher was accused of not worshiping the popular gods, but instituting a religion of his own, and consequently of corrupting the youth. He was found guilty and condemned to suffer death by poison. A cup of hemlock was presented to him. He drank the deadly poison with composure, and died in the serenity of an upright life. He was seventy-one years of age. His life-work had been completed, and the loving and gifted disciples who revered his memory embalmed his thoughts, and made them the rich inheritance of mankind.



Socrates.

Plato and Socrates are so interlinked, that the Socratic and Platonic philosophies are substantially one and indivisible, except upon points too minute for observation at long range. Of his works, as literary productions, this is not the place to speak, and the same remark holds good of Aristotle. Both are conspicuous in Greek classic literature. Both escaped the melancholy fate of Socrates, but neither shrank from his conception of truth, while both were even more revolutionary than the great martyr of pure reason. Plato could boast his descent from Solon, and his love was so immaculate, his philosophy so ethereal and majestic, that his countrymen came to revere him as the son of a virgin and a god. The doctrine of the immaculate conception has been applied to the most illustrious men of many lands. He was born at Athens in B. C. 430. He was said to be the son of Apollo. Ariston, betrothed to his mother, Perictione, was warned in a dream, to delay the nuptials until the birth of the divinely begotten child. His life was long and sad, being "sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought." Aristotle, a Thracian by birth, was born B. C. 384. He was something of a scientist. He combined ethics and metaphysics with physics. The three supreme names in philosophy represent a gradual increase in the domain of thought. Socrates created moral philosophy. Plato inquired into all truth. Aristotle was hardly less anxious in the search for facts, as well as for virtue and truth. He saw in knowledge the basis of wisdom, and had some appreciа-

Plato.

tion of the relations of the tangible to the intangible. He was the tutor of Alexander the Great, and the especial object of study by the scholastics of the medieval age.

The most practical phases of Greek philosophy are suggested by the terms Epicurean and Stoic. These contrasting views or theories of wise living were and are practical. The exact statement of Platonic and Aristotelian philosophies, would lead one to an illimitable plain, abounding in incomprehensible subtleties. But the distinctive ideas of the Epicure and the Stoic are easily stated and understood. The former has been somewhat misrepresented, still, the popular notion of epicureanism is substantially correct. To make the most and the best of this life by the enjoyment of its good things, is the highest wisdom, according to the epicurean school, while stoicism teaches that the best way to avoid misery is to be indifferent to the happenings of life. One sees the wisdom of making the most and the best of the positively good, while the other sees the wisdom of being so fortified against the inevitable evil as to endure it with calmness. Both are right in what they teach directly, while both are wrong in the denials into which they naturally drifted.

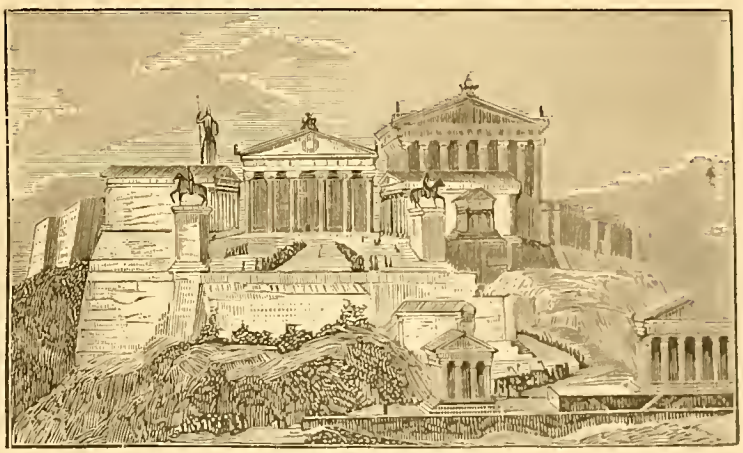
The founder of epicureanism, Epicurus, was born B. C. 342, died B. C. 272. He was a noted teacher in Athens. His voluminous writings have perished, but his doctrines are known. He believed in moderation and sobriety, but happiness was his highest ideal. Philosophy he regarded as the art of life, not the art of truth in the abstract, herein differing from both Plato and Aristotle. The founder of the sect of Stoics, Zeno, was a native of Cyprus. The date of his birth is not known. He became a lecturer on philosophy at Athens, late in life, the spot where his pupils gathered being the stoa or porch, whence the name. He fixed his thonghts on virtue as the supreme good. "Be virtuous and you will be happy" is stoicism; "Be happy and you will be virtuous," epicureanism. In their determination to avoid effeminacy the stoics affected stolidity. The Romans had no taste for the metaphysics of the philosophers, but the practical issue raised by these conflicting theories, appealed to the Roman mind, and the great thinkers of Rome were either Epicureans or Stoics, mostly the latter. From the days of Brutus to those of Marcus Aurelius, the austerity of stoicism met with especial favor in Rome. Its ideal man was the typical Roman. In other words, if one were to picture to one's self the realization of Zeno's philosophy, he would be "the noblest Roman of them all."

Another famous sect of philosophers at Athens was the Cynics. The term has come to mean anybody who has become soured and disgusted, critical and weary of life and all its belongings. The representative Cynic was a Stoic who made an ostentatious show of contempt for the world. Virtue was a sort of warfare carried on by the mind against the body. Serene contempt was intensified into virulent hatred. Diogenes with his tub, and grim sneer at everybody and everything, was the typical Cynic. To make a virtue of insolent criticism and censure, was cynicism two thousand years ago, as now. It was Diogenes who, being seen with a lighted candle at noonday, was asked what he was looking for and answered, "I seek an honest man." But the Cynics did some good. They attacked all with indiscriminate rancor, and some of the absurdities of the philosophers received beneficent excoriation, especially the theories of the skeptics, who placed abstract logic above the demonstrations of facts.

Mention has now been made of the more illustrious philosophers of the classic age, and their distinctive ideas presented. Century after century, the incomparable intellect of the Greek nation sought the solution of life's deeper problems, without the aid of either religion or science. There was a little faith and a very little science, but not enough of either to be perceptible in influence. At last the effort was given up. Various changes of base were made, but all to no purpose. From Thales down, all failed to arrive at conclusions which were really satisfactory. Even Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, failed in giving permanent satisfaction. At last the Greeks became utterly tired of the whole domain of philosophy, and in place of this or that belief, came to almost total disbelief. Skepticism prevailed over all. "There is no absolute criterion of truth," said Pyrrho, the father of the skeptics. Socrates admitted his ignorance, but was confident that the search for knowledge would be richly rewarded; Pyrrho, who, as a soldier of Alexander the Great, had been in India and Egypt, and knew something of all philosophies, pronounced the riddles of philosophy insoluble. There was much reluctance

to accept his views, but finally, in what was called the New Academy at Athens, of Arcesilaus and Carneades, agnosticism prevailed. Arcesilaus was a disciple of Aristotle, as was Carneades a century later, having been born in B. C. 213. With him the race of philosophers seemed to become extinct. And so far as Greece was concerned, it died forever.

Greek culture, however, saw a rival of the spirit of philosophy in Alexandria. In that intellectual capital of the world, an attempt was finally made to solve the problems of philosophy by the aid of religion. Philo is the most prominent name in this connection. Neoplatonism it was called. Accepting the doctrine that reason is impotent to meet the demand, Philo and his school offered the aid of faith, especially the intense piety of the Hebrew nation. He was a Jew of Greek education. He believed he saw in the "thus saith the Lord" of his people the missing link in Philosophy. He was born a few years before Christ. It was not long before Neoplatonism and Christianity were jostled against each other, both eager to turn to advantage the confession of philosophy that it could not solve the mystery of truth. Plotinus is the great name in this conflict. In the Gospel of John with its deification of the "Word," may be seen the influence of Neoplatonism upon the church, especially in the doctrine of the Trinity. The last of the Neoplatonists, Proclus, was born A. D. 412. He showed the power of Christianity more than Plotinus did. He tried to save philosophy by liberal concessions; but to no purpose. It was doomed, and with his death was buried, ceasing to be a real power in the world, until Bacon gave it a scientific tendency.



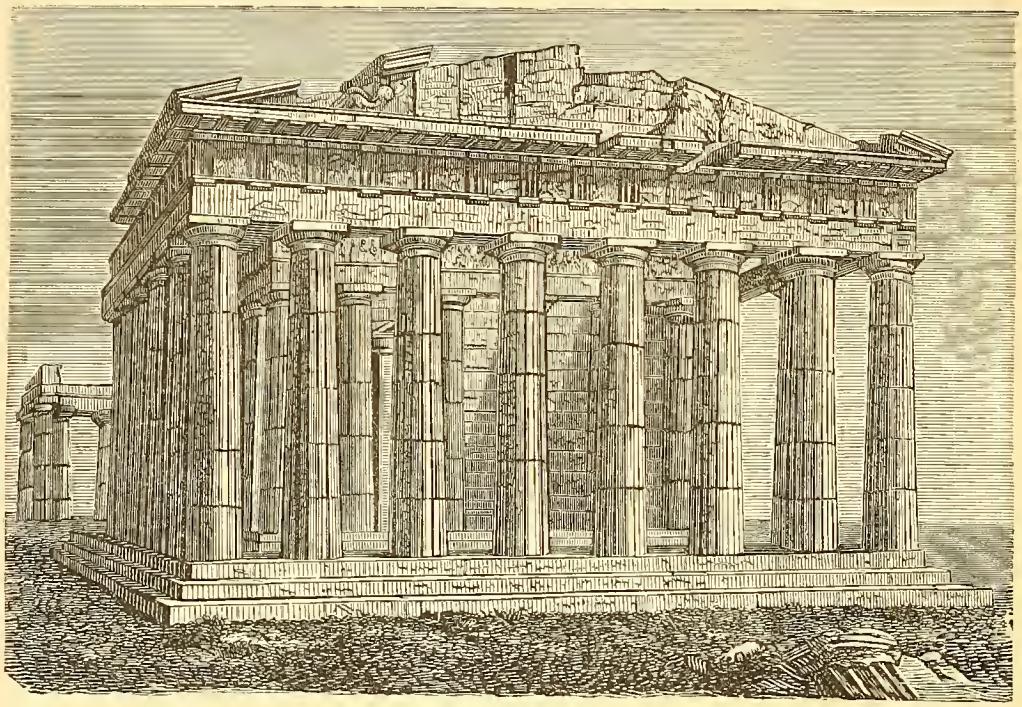
The Acropolis at Athens as it was.

It was, then, the province of the Greeks to show that philosophy cannot produce satisfactory results upon any other than a scientific basis. It tried every conceivable theory, and whatever the distinctive idea, and alike with and without religion, it fell short of producing intellectual content, and its grand glory is the claim it may justly lay to the high honor of having stimulated inquiry.

The Greeks were no less prominent in art than in philosophy. They excelled equally in painting, sculpture and architecture. From the nature of the case the works of the painters have perished. Apelles, whose portraits were the admiration of his countrymen, was a cotemporary of Alexander, whose portrait he painted. Nothing remains to testify, first hand, to the merit of Greek art with the brush and easel. But what Greek genius wrought in stone has not wholly disappeared.

Praxiteles, who flourished at Athens late in the fourth century before Christ, has been called the head of the Attic school. He worked in marble and bronze both, chiefly in the former. His subjects were mythological. Venus, Cupid and Apollo were favorite subjects with him. He has been called "the sculptor of the beautiful." As the sculptor of the grand, the highest honor belongs to Phidias, who flourished in the splendid era of Pericles and his no less brilliant Aspasia (B. C. 500). The colossal statue of Zeus at the temple of Olympia, in Elis, classed as one of the seven wonders of the world, was the work of his brain and hand. It was in gold and ivory. It occupied its more than royal throne until A. D. 475, when it was destroyed by fire. An imitation of the head is preserved in the Vatican museum, and that is all that remains to us of that prodigy of art. Phidias put the best work of his life, however, into the Parthenon and the other temples of the Acropolis of Athens. That citadel was not only adorned with the temple of Athena, but of the Erechtheum and other temples. It was no less the treasury of Greek art than the stronghold of the capital. Speaking of Phidias, Mr. Frothingham remarks: "He was a man of lofty

soul, majestic intellect, consummate knowledge of the principles of his art, and wonderful skill in design. The buildings that crowned the Acropolis at Athens are believed to have been erected under his direction, and much of the work—how much cannot be known—may be ascribed to his hand. The great statue of Athena in the Parthenon, of gold, ivory and precious stones, was, there is little room to doubt, executed by him." Numerous bronzes of great merit are traditionally associated with the name of Phidias.



THE PARTHENON.
Constructed of Pentelic Marble, under the direction of the celebrated sculptor Phidias, dedicated to Minerva, 438 B. C.

The term architecture is derived from the Greek, and means "chief art," and such was the Grecian estimate of the building art. The supreme edifice of antiquity, in beauty if not in sublimity, was the Parthenon, which is conceded to be the type of perfection in construction. It was not a large building, being only 228 feet long and 101 feet wide. The material used was the finest white marble. It was painted within and without. It dates from B. C. 440. The architects were Ictinus and Callicrates. It belongs to the Doric order of architecture. Ruins of Greek temples show three orders, the Doric being the most common and most severely simple. The Ionic order was somewhat ornate. It dates as far back, probably, as the Doric, but seems to have been less used. The third and most elaborately carved order was the Corinthian, which was not introduced until the Alexandrine age. It was never the prevailing order in fashion in Greece, to which rank it rose, however, in Rome. "The Greeks," says Morgan, "were not great builders, but they were supreme architects." It is equally true that the Romans were not great architects, but magnificent builders. The Greek ideas of architecture were carried to grander, if less exquisite results, in Rome than in Athens, and the Pantheon, built at Rome about thirty years before Christ, was not only Greek in name (Pantheon meaning in that language a temple for all the gods) but it was Grecian in its essential characteristics. Indeed, almost all public architecture in Europe and America, except the Gothic, may be said to attest the excellency of Greek genius in that department or art and industry.

The Parthenon was despoiled from time to time, but much of its statuesque wealth survived until a comparative late day, in the ruined temple, but was at last carried off to England by Lord Elgin, and

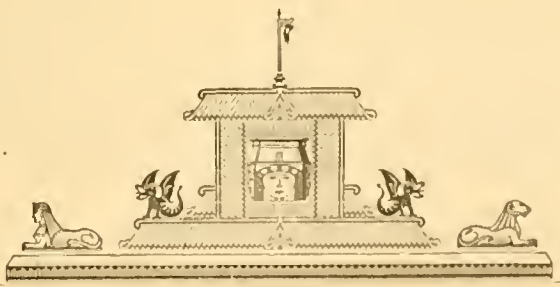
deposited in the British museum. Those treasures of art are known as the "Elgin Marbles," and in them may be seen the subtle and refined artistic genius of the Greek civilization.

One of the best known and most remarkable pieces of statuary in the world is the Laocoön of three Rhodian artists, Agesander, Achenodorus and Polydorus. It is based on a Trojan tradition, best told by Virgil in his Æneid. A priest of that city opposed the introduction into Troy of the wooden horse, when he and his two sons were slain by two great serpents from the sea, which the Trojans seeing, accepted as a sign from Heaven that the priest had given unrighteous counsel. It might be noticed that the central figure is much larger in proportion than the sons. The former is the chief merit of this incomparable work of art.

GROUP OF THE LAOCOÖN.

In his history of art, De Forest characterizes Greek art as follows: "The first plastic works of Greece were undoubtedly marked with a strong Oriental impress. They were the creations of the artisan rather than of the artist, and consisted of sumptuous decoration applied to armor, household utensils, and the like. The description of Achilles' shield in the Iliad gives us an idea of the splendor of this kind of work. The first representations of the gods were symbolic, a stone or a piece of wood; and the earliest complete images were of wood. These wooden idols were very rude, but were considered specially sacred, even in later times. They were supplied with elaborate wardrobes, and were dressed and washed by regular attendants. Metal statues and clay images of the gods were introduced toward the close of the archaic period of Greek art."

For the benefit of those who are interested in the techniques of architecture we append what De Forest says in his history of art about the lintel or entablature of a Greek order. "It has," he observes, "three members,—the architrave, or principal beam, which rests directly upon the capital of the columns; the frieze, or ornamental band; and the projecting cornice which protects the frieze and architrave, as the capital protects the column from the inclemencies of the weather. The column is also divided into three parts,—the base, which is an expansion of the shaft, having the same relation to it that the foot has to the human figure; the shaft or upright support; and the capital or bearer, which has been likened to a hand spread out to receive the weight of the architrave. The pediment or gable is the triangular space at either end of a building between the cornice of the entablature and the cornice of the sloping roof."

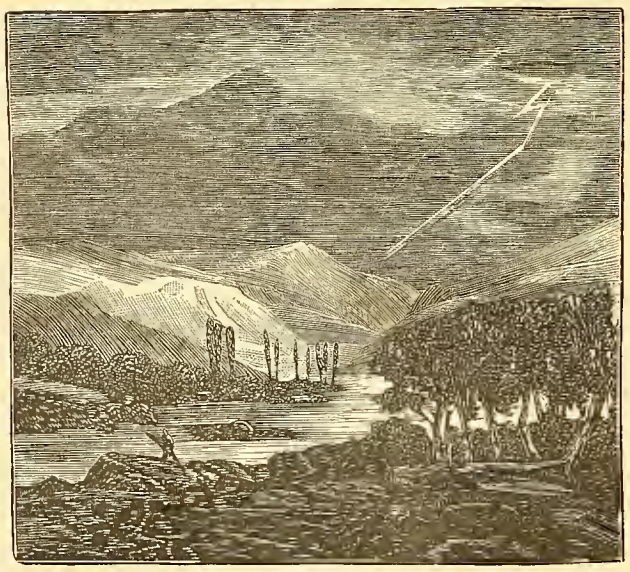


GREEK AND ROMAN MYTHOLOGY.

CHAPTER XIX.

GREEK AND ROMAN NAMES—THE ORIGIN OF CLASSIC MYTHS—JUPITER AND CELESTIAL HEREDITY—WAR IN HEAVEN—DIVISION OF THE SPOILS—THE AMOURS OF THE GODS—THE CHIEF DIVINITIES AND THEIR ALLOTMENTS—MINOR DUTIES—OLYMPUS—THE MYTH AND DETAILS OF CREATION AND THE FALL OF MAN—CLASSIC STORY OF THE DELUGE—PHAETON AND HIS PRESUMPTION—DEIFICATION OF LOVE—PEGASUS AND POETRY—CENTAURS AND OTHER MONSTERS—THE RIDDLE OF THE SPHINX—ORPHEUS AND EURYDICE—IGNORANCE, CREDULITY AND SKEPTICISM.

IN nothing else are Greek and Roman annals and ideas so similar as in mythology. Nearly all the deities of Roman idolatry, as known to us through Latin literature, were transferred from Athens to Rome with hardly any other change than that of names. Cronos was called Saturn; Zeus, Jupiter or Jove; Poseidon, Neptune; Ares, Mars; Hephæstos, Vulcan; Hermes, Mercury; Hera, Juno; Athena, Minerva; Artemis, Diana; Aphrodite, Venus; Hestia, Vesta; Demeter, Ceres; Dionysius, Bacchus; Phœbus, Apollo; Letus, Latona. The Roman names are commonly used and will be employed usually in this chapter.



MOUNT OLYMPUS.

It has been said that with Homer and Hesiod the formation of the myths was finished, and that with the drama and philosophy, desintegration and unbelief began, the personalities vanishing into the thin air of symbols of ideas. It has been claimed by some that the old myths were born of natural phenomena, and designed to teach lessons in natural history. Others again insist that moral ideas underlie the stories of the gods. These theories are often advocated with great skill and ingenuity. It is obvious, that natural and ethical meanings can be

put into them, and the myths made to do important service by way of illustration; but there is no good reason to suppose that any philosophical basis can be discovered historically for the gods of Greece and Rome. They grew up gradually out of the ooze of ignorance and superstition, and all attempts to etherealize that mud are futile. As well try to establish the identity of the alluvia of the Nile and the manna of the wilderness. The home of the gods was Mount Olympus and their king was Jupiter. He was elected to that position by the suffrage of his brothers and sisters. The Greek mind would not allow the doctrine of "the divine right of kings," even in heaven. Jupiter was indeed called "the father of gods and men," but it was no such paternity as the Jews attribute to Jehovah, and the Christians to the Deity of their worship. Jupiter was surely the elder son of Saturn, and the latter the youngest son of Uranus, or Heaven, who was the son of Earth, eldest child of Chaos, the latter being the real father of gods and men, the great First Cause. Thus we see that Jupiter was the great-great grandson of the divine parent of all things. The ancient Greeks and Romans caught a faint glimpse of a celestial chain of heredity.

The first active display of heavenly energy definitely conceived in this mythology bears a striking resemblance to the war in heaven, described so minutely by the greatly praised and sometimes read "Paradise Lost," of Milton, only the rebels of the old myths won the battle. Jupiter, his brothers and sisters, so runs the story, rose in rebellion against their father and the older deities, called Titans. The battle was fierce and desperate. At last the Titans were vanquished, and cast down into hell, or Tartarus, from which they will emerge in some remote future, something as Satan is promised release from the same place of torment, for the space of a thousand years.

Having won the world by conquest, the victors divided the spoils. Jupiter took heaven, or Olympus, where the gods reside, Neptune the ocean, and Pluto, Hades, the home of departed spirits. Unfortunately for the peace of mankind, the Earth was what is called a free zone,—a vast common held by the gods *in sociage*. The principle of evil, the Ahriman of the Persians, the Satan of the Jews, the Siva of the Hindoos, and the Loki of the Scandinavians, does not appear in classic mythology. Any such deity would be superfluous. All the gods are bad, differing more in capacity than in disposition. Jupiter's high domain was no less turbulent than the ocean, and there was not repose even in the dreary desolation of the nether world.

Jupiter.

Jupiter was a notorious rake. His life, as written by the poets, was that of a divine Don Juan. His wife, Juno, was jealous, constantly watching him, and wreaking revenge upon the victims or fruits of his amours. The details of ancient mythology are too vile to be read, especially as portrayed by the Latin poets. The older Greeks were less indecent in their narrations. But at its best, the mythology of the Greeks and Romans was a seething caldron of impurity. Numerous were the demi-gods, or semi-gods, as they might better be termed, for in Greek myths, as in antediluvian times, "the sons of God" made love to the "daughters of men." Among the Greeks and the Romans religion and morals had no connection. That feature of religion so very prominent in Christianity and Buddhism is almost entirely wanting in classic mythology, this deficiency showing itself with especial emphasis in the love intrigues of the Olympic deities.

The rank and sphere of Jupiter, Neptune, and Pluto, have already been stated. Apollo was the god of music, physics, poetry, and the arts. The nine Muses, the especial patrons of poetry, were under his rule. The chariot of the sun was his, and he alone could guide it. Mars was the god of battle. Vulcan was the blacksmith and general artisan of heaven. Mercury was the messenger of the gods, also the deity of commerce and thievery. Bacchus was the god of wine. Venus was the goddess of love, and a female of decidedly loose morals. She was wedded to Vulcan, who was lame and unattractive. Minerva was the goddess of wisdom, especially in war. She sprang full armed from the brain of Jupiter. Diana was the goddess of the chase. Æolus was the god of the wind, Momus of laughter, and Ceres of fruit and grain. Vesta was one of the older goddesses, and was the guardian of

domestic virtue. She was rather Roman than Greek in her origin, and the same is true of Janus, who had two faces and was the deity of peace. His temple at Rome was always open in time of war, and was closed only three times during a period of seven centuries. Latona was the goddess of night, and Aurora of morning. The Earth was sometimes personified as Cybele, sometimes as Rhea, and sometimes as Ops. Themis was the goddess of law and justice, and Nemesis of retribution. These were the principal deities and their several allotments. Besides these there were the gods of the rivers, the woods, and the rural deities without number. Pan was an illustrious woodland deity, interested in shepherds, fishermen and fowlers. He was half man and half goat. He was a famous musician. The satyrs were also half man and half goat. Nymphs were beautiful female attendants upon the great goddesses. They were sometimes called Naiads or Nereids. Echo was one of their number. The Fates were three sisters, daughters of Chaos, and presided over the destinies of mortals. The Furies were also three sisters, and were employed in making both the living and the dead miserable. Pluto, the god of Hades, has been mentioned. There were three Judges of the dead, Minos being chief justice. In passing from Earth to Hades, the soul had to cross the river Styx in the boat of a miserly old ferryman called Charon. The Christian conception of a heaven for the good and a hell for the bad was only dimly outlined in classic mythology. Hades was the place of all departed souls, but some found existence there pleasant, or at least free from pain, while others were subjected to different degrees of unhappiness. The abode of the gods was on the summit of Mount Olympus, in Thessaly. The deities had their individual homes, but all, when convened by their sovereign Jupiter, repaired to the palace of his celestial highness, where there was feasting and merriment.

THE ASSEMBLY OF THE GODS.

Ambrosia was their food and nectar their drink. The cup-bearer was the lovely goddess Hebe, or the beauteous boy, stolen for that purpose from Earth, Ganymede. Apollo twanged his lyre amid the feast and the nine Muses sang responsively. At sundown the deities retired to their own respective abodes. Their houses were of brass, built by Vulcan.

Among the Titans was Epimetheus. In accordance with authority given him from on high, he created the animals of the earth. Man was his last and favorite work. He asked his brother Prometheus, who had some supervisory connection with creation, to help him secure to man supremacy. Thereupon the daring Titan lighted a torch at the sun and gave fire to men. That supreme gift greatly incensed the gods, but none the less proved an inestimable boon

to the human family. For his impiety, as it was called, Prometheus was bound to a rock where a vulture ate his ever-renewing vitals. This myth furnished the groundwork of the highest tragedy of Greek literature.

The story of Pandora and her box is a variation of the Promethean story. It is said that to furnish the first woman, Pandora was made of material contributed by each god, and corresponding to the characteristics of each. She seemed a perfect being. Epimetheus was delighted with such an addition to the world. But Prometheus warned him that Jupiter meant mischief by his seeming fair bounty. And so it proved. In his work of creation Epimetheus had carefully rejected all bad material, and put it in a refuse box. To keep that closed forever, would protect man from evil, but to open it, would be to let loose upon the world all evil. Of course Pandora was so very curious to know the contents of that box that one day she lifted the lid, when out flew the contents, to torment and distract mankind.

DEUCALION AND PYRRHA.

The story of the fall of man, not only, but of the flood, is clearly traceable in classic mythology. The only survivors of that deluge were Deucalion and his wife Pyrrha, a pious and God-fearing couple. After the waters had subsided they proceeded, in obedience to an oracle, to people the world by casting stones behind them, those thrown by the man becoming men, those thrown by the woman becoming women. The new race was hardy, but far inferior to the antediluvians.

The passion of love is variously brought out by mythology. Venus was the goddess of love in its fullest sense, but besides her were Psyche and Cupid. The former was the goddess of the spiritual element in love, without its physical expression. Cupid was the son of Venus, a mischievous boy, roaming about with his bow and arrow, shooting whom he would, and whom he wounded was sure to fall in love with the next person met of the opposite sex. Thus his own mother one day wounded herself with one of Cupid's arrows, and in consequence became so enamored of an earthly boy, Adonis, that she found no pleasure in heaven, but wooed the unresponsive lad. He was unmindful of all her charms, being wholly given to the pleasures of the chase. At last a wild boar ended the life of Adonis.

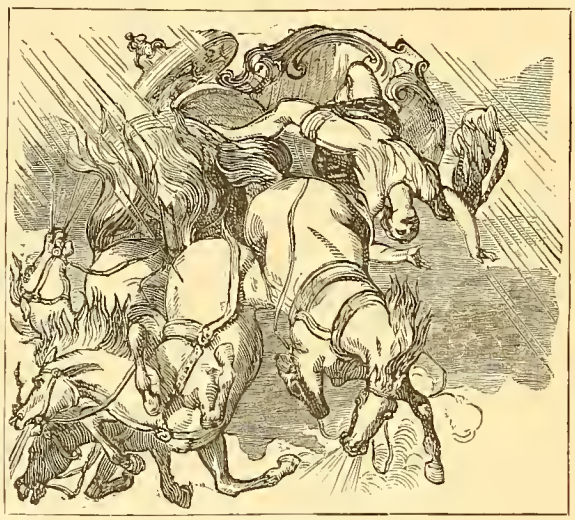
"The Muses nine" were not the only mythological embodiment of the classic idea of the poetical faculty as a divine gift. Those famous sisters dwelt on Mount Helicon, and drank of the fountain Hippocrene. Minerva presented to them the winged horse Pegasus, upon which, if one rode, he would soar aloft among the creations of fancy. This horse appears in several myths, especially in the slaying of the Chimæra. That horrid monster breathed fire and raised havoc in Lycia. Bellerophon, mounted on the winged horse, undertook to slay the ravaging dragon, and did so. But when, later, the slayer of the Chimæra attempted to fly upon Pegasus to heaven, Jupiter sent a gadfly, which so worried the horse with wings that he threw his aspiring rider, who became lame and blind from the fall.

The centaurs were monsters with the heads of men and the bodies of horses. They were sometimes admitted to the society of men. On one occasion they were invited to a marriage feast, and when under the influence of wine offered violence to the bride. A fierce combat followed, known in sculpture and poetry as the battle of the Lapithæ and Centaurs. But one of the Centaurs, Chiron, was renowned for his wisdom and goodness. At death Zeus placed him among the stars. Chiron was famous for his skill in prophecy, poetry and medicine. Apollo is said to have intrusted to his care the infant Æsculapius, who stands in legendary annals as the great physician.

The Pygmies were a nation of dwarfs. They

once came upon Hercules asleep, and prepared to attack him as if he were a city with walls. The Griffin, or Gryphon, was a monster with the body of a lion, the head and wings of an eagle, and a back covered with feathers. It was the guardian of hidden treasures, especially of the gold of India. The Sphinx of Greece was a cruel monster with the body of a lion and the head of a woman. It infested the highway near Thebes. All passers-by were asked by the Sphinx, "What animal is that which in the morning goes on four feet, at noon on two, and in the evening on three?" None could guess the riddle until Œdipus replied, "Man, who in childhood creeps on hands and knees, in manhood walks erect, and in old age with a staff." Her riddle guessed, the Sphinx plunged into the sea and was seen no more forever.

Phaeton was ambitious to drive the chariot of the sun, his father, Apollo, or Phœbus. The sire finally consented. The car of day made a perilous trip around the world, in and out among the heavenly bodies. For a time all went well. The horses darted up the vaulted sky at a furious rate. In a luckless moment Phaeton glanced down to earth and lost self-control. The reins fell from his hands. The horses darted madly off into space, setting fire to mountains, cities and the world generally. Had not Jupiter taken pity on the earth, utter ruin would have been inevitable. He launched a thunderbolt at Phaeton, hurling him to earth, sacrificed to save the world which was being destroyed for his folly. The ambition of the youth was noble, but it was none the less necessary that he should pay the penalty of his presumption.



"PHAETON."

Orpheus and Eurydice are familiar mythological characters. Orpheus was the son of Apollo and the Muse Calliope. He could play the lyre so very charmingly that he drew to him the very beasts of the field, who were softened and made gentle by the influence of his music. He was wedded to the nymph Eurydice. Soon after their marriage, which was presided over by Hymen, the god of wedlock, she was wandering with her sylvan companions in the woods when a serpent bit her foot. She died of the wound. The disconsolate husband sought his love in Hades. He sang his grief in tones so melancholy that the spirits of the dead shed ghostly tears, and so did even the Furies. All the regions below were stirred with sympathy. Finally Pluto consented that the tender Orpheus should take back his bride, but on one condition—he should not look back in all his ascent to the upper world. In a moment of forgetfulness he turned to look at his fair companion limping along behind him. That moment she vanished into thin air, saying, "Farewell, a last farewell." In vain he lingered and sought for Eurydice. At length he returned to earth alone and disconsolate. All thoughts of love were now abhorrent to him, until in death he was reunited to his lost wife.

The common people of Greece always had confidence in the national deities as actual personages, and the stories told about them were implicitly believed. But the educated class seems to have seen in the popular mythology a series of allegories or downright fables, more curious than solemn. In Rome, even the common people came to doubt the reality of their religion, and the educated class looked upon it as the invention of their ancestors, and more especially of the Greeks, whose intellectual superiority was held in highest respect. Actual faith in the myths of the old Greeks, fading out, left a blank in which Christianity could inscribe its tenets without the necessity of first eradicating deep-rooted theological convictions. Mythology may be called the half-brother of the heroic element in Greek history.

It is a curious fact that Christian Europe cultivated belief in the classic deities as spiritual realities, only they were held to be demons, or devils. This was the general opinion of Christendom until about a century ago.

THE WORLD OF THE ANCIENTS.

CHAPTER XX.

THE SENILITY OF THE WORLD—OUTER GREECE—RHODES AND ITS COLOSSUS—HALICARNASSUS AND ITS MAUSOLEUM—DIANA OF EPHESUS—SYRACUSE AND ARCHIMEDES—IONIAN ISLANDS—CRETE—CYPRUS—FROM MAURITANIA TO ALBION—SCANDIA, SARMATIA, DACIA AND THRACE—SCYTHIA AND INDIA—ARYA, THE CRADLE OF CIVILIZATION—PTOLEMY AND HIS GEOGRAPHY—THE PTOLEMAIC SYSTEM, OR THE THREE-FOLD WORLD OF THE ANCIENTS.

THE lands thus far visited in the course of this history form very insignificant parts of the present world. Some of the nations have disappeared altogether, living, if at all, only in "a good diffused," or in a decrepitude which is a living death. But Rome, with all its vicissitudes, is a very important part of the actual life of to-day. Standing, therefore, at the division line between the old nations which have upon them every mark of senility, if they are not actually in the grave, and the one nation of antiquity which renewed its youth at the fountain of ecclesiastical authority, it may be well to pause for a survey of the world of the ancients.

This old world contained many Greek cities and colonies, some of whom have thus far escaped the attention to which their importance entitles them. We will visit those places of interest and then furnish a key to the accompanying map.

Within ten miles of the Asiatic coast lies the island of Rhodes, with an area of 420 square miles, with a population of 135,000. Its main town bears the same name. That city dates from B. C. 408. At the entrance of one of its harbors once stood the Colossus of Rhodes (see frontispiece) one of the seven wonders of the world. It was a brazen statue of Apollo, supposed to date from B. C. 280. It was 105 feet in height. Tradition says that ships in full sail passed between its huge legs. It could be ascended by a winding staircase. In B. C. 224 an earthquake overthrew it. Its fragments were still preserved as late as A. D. 672. The execution of that stupendous work of art is attributed to Charus of Lindus.

Not far from Rhodes, upon the mainland of Asia, stood the Greek city of Halicarnassus. It was thoroughly Greek in language and culture, but truly Persian in political character. It was ruled for a long time by a line of princes who were loyal to the Persian crown. The most noted of these was Mausolus (see frontispiece) whose tomb is another of the seven wonders of the world. It was erected by his widow, Artemisia, in B. C. 353. Pliny described it minutely. Like the Colossus of Rhodes, it was the victim of an earthquake, but that elemental destruction was far from complete. In the fifteenth century the Knights of Rhodes took possession of the city and desecrated the tomb. Later the Turks used the stones for other purposes to such an extent that for a long time the very site was in doubt.

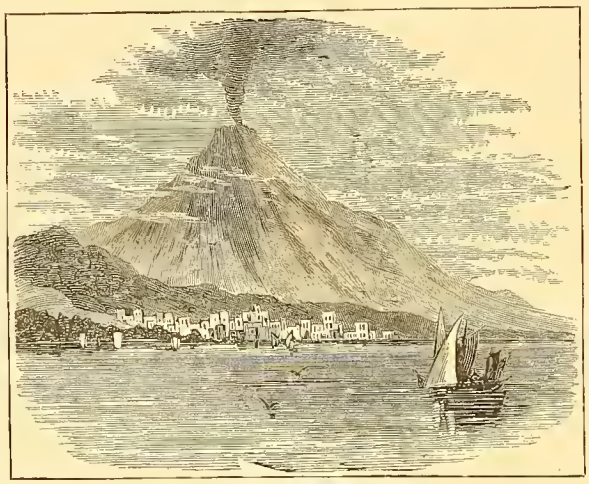
Passing northward from Halicarnassus, one ar-

rives at Ephesus, one of the most important of the historic cities of the Ionian Confederation. It was the supposed birthplace of the goddess Diana, and there stood still another of the seven wonders of the world, the temple of Diana (see frontispiece). According to Herodotus, Hercules founded the city B. C. 1250. That wondrous temple was fired in B. C. 356 by Erostratus, the youth who had an insane thirst for notoriety. The actual

Diana of Ephesus.

destruction of the temple, and the consequent decay of the city, was the work of Goths in A. D. 262. Recent excavations have disclosed the foundations of three distinct temples built upon the same site. The last temple of Diana was 164 feet wide, 343 feet long, with 100 massive columns, some of which were carved most ornately. A Christian church was established at Ephesus in the apostolic age, to which St. Paul addressed one of his most characteristic epistles, and it was there that the great apostle narrowly escaped being mobbed for preaching the gospel, the cry of the mob being, "Great is Diana of the Ephesians!"

Syracuse was once a very flourishing Greek city of Sicily. Its prosperity began when the Romans gained possession of the rest of the island, which had been settled largely by the Phœnicians. That change in the condition of Syracuse grew out of the first Punic war, which settled the question of supremacy between Rome and Carthage. Without anticipating the chapter devoted to that struggle, it may be said that in B. C. 275 the Roman power established the rule in Syracuse of Heiron II., an ally of Rome, and that under this king the city prospered greatly. Its population was immense and its public buildings magnificent. But in the second Punic war Syracuse allied itself with Rome, a fatal mistake. The city was besieged. For a long time the defense was impregnable, thanks to Archimedes, that prodigy of mathematics and mechanics; but in B. C. 212 the city fell, Archimedes himself being slain in the wild havoc of the sack. It is now a city of imposing ruins.



SYRACUSE.

Along the western and southern coast of Greece extends a chain of islands, containing in all 1041 square miles. They are called the Ionian islands, of which the largest is Corfu. From immemorial time the people were Greeks. The total population of the cluster is about two hundred and fifty thousand. Politically they have been subjected to a great many vicissitudes, but finally, in 1864, they were annexed to Greece, much to their satisfaction.

Crete, or Candia, is one of the more famous islands of the Mediterranean. It is 150 miles long and from 6 to 35 miles in width. In the midst of it rises Mount Ida, famous in classic mythology as the retreat of the Minotaur. It is supposed to have contained a population of over a million at one time, but has now only about 200,000. From 1866 to 1869 the Cretans were at war with the Turks, demanding annexation to Greece. They were subdued after a most desperate struggle. It is supposed by some that Crete was the very cradle of European civilization. Tradition makes Minos its ruler at one time. It was a part of Phœnicia once, but a Greek colony was early planted there, which entirely supplanted the Phœnician settlement.

Cyprus is another Greek island of about the size and population of Crete. It is 44 miles south of Cape Annonone, in Anatolia, and about the same distance west of Syria. As a naval point it is of very great importance. The Turks took possession of it in the sixteenth century, keeping it until the present decade, when the "Sick Man" was compelled

to surrender it to England. Cyprus has almost always been under foreign rule. It is rich in ruins and its mines of relics have been very industriously worked, yielding prolific stores of coins, pottery and other evidences of buried civilizations. These relics attest the existence, under Phœnician, Assyrian, Greek, Persian, and, later, Egyptian rule, of great wealth and high culture.

We turn now from Outer Greece, as it might be called, to the large divisions of the world of the Ancients. The map which accompanies this chapter will be our guide in what remains.

The term Mauritania was used to designate the little-known northwestern portion of Africa, as Libya Interior, Ethiopia Interior, Ethiopes, Hesperia and Fortunate Isles were names for unexplored and dimly conceived portions of the same continent. It will be observed that the Ancients had no idea whatever of Southern Africa, and none of any real intelligence of any portion of Africa outside of Ethiopia proper, Egypt, and the southern shore of the Mediterranean sea. If their ships passed beyond the pillars of Hercules the prows were turned northward rather than southward. Hibernia, the present Ireland, was mentioned by Aristotle, Pliny, Ptolemy and some others, but none of them seemed to have any real information in regard to it. Albion (England) signifies "White island," suggested, perhaps, by the Cliffs of Kent. No doubt the Phœnicians knew something of England, but no part of the British Islands came into any vital relations to the rest of the world until Agricola established there the rule of Rome.

Scandia, or Scandinavia, derived no prominence whatever until the medieval age. Those bold pirates of the northern waters never entered the Mediterranean in ancient times, nor were they disturbed in their own homes by men from the civilized South. The vast region between the Baltic and the Black Sea, and from the Vistula to the Volga, called Sarmatia, was also an almost wholly unknown land, even to the Romans of the declining empire. It extended southward to Dacia, the home of the Daci, a warlike people who are supposed to have gone from Thrace northward as early as the time of Alexander the Great, but of whom we really hear nothing until about the time our Christian era began, when the Romans undertook their conquest. It was over a hundred years before the Daci were really subdued. Thrace was the border-land between Greek and barbarian, or rather, the barbaric and thoroughly non-Hellenistic portion of Greece. The Macedonians were only semi-Greek, and the Thracians had no part or lot in that superb civilization. At the present time Thrace is infested by a people nearly as rude and uncultured as their ancestors of the remotest day.

Germania, Gaul, Italia, and Hispania are, as the reader readily recognizes, the Germany, France, Italy, and Spain and Portugal of to-day. They were the rudest of savages all through the old-world period.

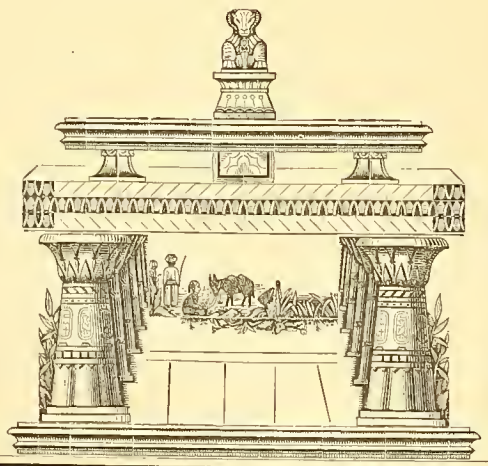
Turning to Asia, we find, besides Asia Minor, Arabia, Media, Persia and Syria (of which we have heard or will hear distinctively, and which were, in time, the seats of great civilizations), India, Scythia and Arya. The former tempted Alexander, through whom some very slight knowledge of the country was derived by the Greeks, but for nearly all purposes of definite knowledge and real communication it was an unknown world, and one to which the historians of antiquity very rarely so much as refer. Scythia was the original name for the indefinite region north, east and south of the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Aral. It was hardly a geographical term, being vaguely applied to the hives whence swarmed, from time to time, hordes of barbarians. Much of Russia, especially in Asia, was vaguely designated Scythia, and if a band of savage raiders in

old times would not be otherwise identified, they were called Scythians, or Gauls, according to the direction from which they came.

From a strictly ancient point of view, no name on the map referred to (given on the preceding page) would be less important than Arya; but in view of modern philological discoveries it assumes very great importance. It was the home of the Sanskrit-speaking people of India, the Ayran race, from which has sprung the Indo-Germanic races, or nearly the entire civilized world of to-day. The higher classes of India are Aryans, and so are the Persians, and, as has been well remarked, "also the whole of the extensive family whose forefathers once inhabited central Asia, whence they migrated in search of pastures new, some going southeast to India, some northward or northwestward to Russia, and others westward to Asia Minor, thence to southern and central Europe." It will be seen that according to this opinion, based on a scientific study of comparative philology, Arya was the cradle of the Greek, the Roman, the Brahmin and the Yankee. In the Sanskrit tongue, Arya means "agricultural," "respectable," and "honorable."

Such was the ancient knowledge of geography. The wisdom of antiquity on that subject was summed up by Ptolemy of Alexandria, not one of the thirteen kings of Egypt who had their capital there, but Claudius Ptolemæus, who flourished in the middle of the second Christian century. His *Geographia* represented that a great inland sea was formed by the coast of Africa, extending eastward until it joined the coast of Asia. He thought the world extended east and west 170°, instead of 120°. Geography was largely a speculative instead of a scientific study, from the earliest time until after the globe had been circumnavigated. Ptolemy set forth what had been known for centuries, and it was not until the fifteenth century that his work became antiquated.

To the ancients the earth was the center of the universe. Their idea of astronomy, called the "Ptolemaic system," was that the sun and moon revolved around the earth, and that beneath this world of ours were the infernal regions of gods and spirits, while in the azure above were lands fairer than the eye of man ever beheld. In a word, the World of the Ancients was a vast edifice with three stories. There was no uniformity in the ancient ideas of the world below and above us. The modern distinctions of hell and heaven were not sharply and uniformly outlined. To Homer and the Greeks the nether world was gloomy and painful; to Virgil and the Romans it was not wholly so. In a general way, however, it may be said that the ancient theory was that this earth was intermediate, in happiness or misery, as well as in position, between the two spiritual worlds of their imaginations.



MODERN GREECE AND THE GREEK CHURCH.

CHAPTER XXI.

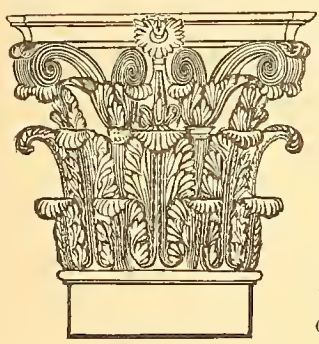
DECAY OF THE DESTRUCTIBLE—FROM GREECE TO ACHAIA—CORINTH, ANCIENT AND MODERN—BYZANTINE AND MOSLEM RULE—THE VENETIANS AND THE PARTHENON—THE GREEK REVOLUTION, BYRON AND BOTZARIS—INTERVENTION OF THE GREAT POWERS—THE MONARCHY ESTABLISHED—KINGS AND THE CONSTITUTION—PRESENT GOVERNMENT OF GREECE—CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY—GREEK CHURCH AND GREECE—GREEK CHURCH ELSEWHERE—CHARACTERISTICS OF THIS CHURCH—FAREWELL TO THE GREEKS.

AN eminent historian has well remarked that "there seems to be something in the Roman rule which brought death to the Greek spirit." When, therefore, in tracing the historic wars of Greece we followed the fortunes of the Greeks to the period of Roman conquest, we may fairly be said to have reached the end, in an important sense, of Ancient Greece. From that time until our own century, that unhappy country was the prey of misery and oppression. There was no Medieval Greece. For two chiliads the land was obscured. Its history could be written with minuteness, but with no profit. Greek thought permeated, if it did not dominate, the intellectual world, but apart from philosophy, including speculative theology, poetry and general literature, all was blank. Modern Greece is indeed insignificant, still it is a distinct national entity. To trace in outline the course of events, from a Grecian point of view, from the great conquest to the present day, and then set forth the actual condition of Greece now, together with an account of the Greek church, will be our object in this connection.

The original policy of Rome was to respect, to a most remarkable degree, the political sentiments of the Greeks. In B. C. 196, Flaminius proclaimed the liberty of Greece. Nine years later, after some further conquests, rendered necessary, from the Roman standpoint, by rebellion, the Achæan League was crushed, but in B. C. 147, Sparta and Corinth were allowed independence, but still there was no contentment. Such was the state of things at Corinth that the Roman policy was suddenly and radically changed. The year B. C. 146 saw that superb city laid in ashes, its treasures of art scattered and destroyed, and Greece blotted out, to be, henceforth, merely the Roman Province of Achaia. To Corinth may thus be attributed the dubious honor of occasioning the great calamity of Greece. For this reason specific mention of that city has been reserved for this chapter.

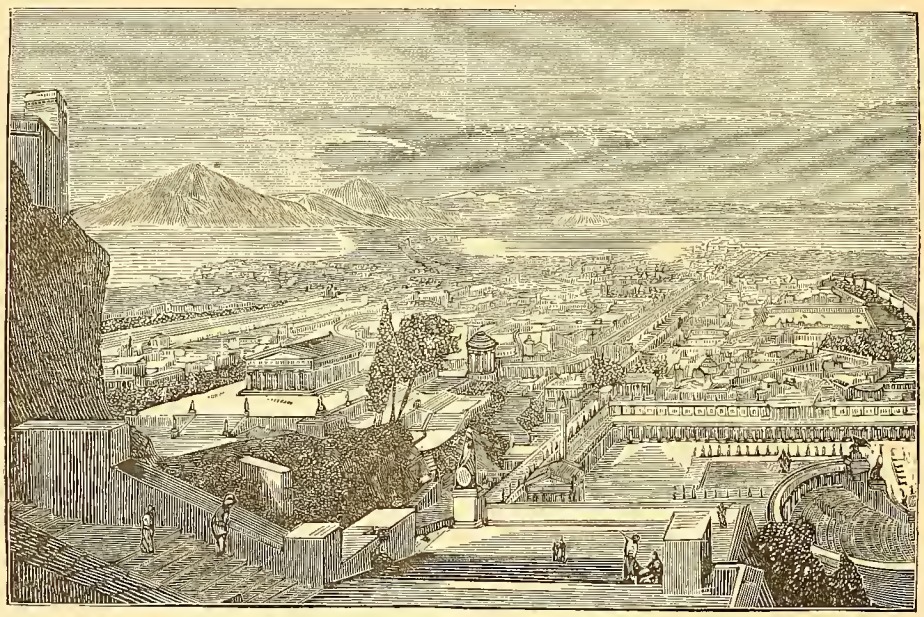
Corinth is situated fifty miles from Athens, on the isthmus bearing the same name. The place on which it is located is sterile and volcanic, but the city commands all the passes between the Peloponnesus and Northern Greece, making it an excellent point for commerce, especially in ancient times. It was the gateway of the two seas, Ionian and Ægean, the emporium of Eastern and Western traffic. The city of Corinth usually allied itself with the

Spartans as against the Athenians, but some time after the Peloponnesian war it took up the sword against Sparta in what was called the Corinthian War, which ended in the renewal of friendly relations. Its wealth made it a great center of art. The merchant princes were liberal patrons of sculpture and painting. If Boston is the Athens of America, Corinth was the New York of Greece. Besides sculpture and painting, the city was noted for the splendor of its architecture. Indeed, the most elaborate order of ancient architecture was the Corinthian order, especially the capital. Numerous temples and palatial residences embellished the city until Roman vandalism laid them low. The principal monument now remaining is the citadel, situated on the hill Acrocorinthus. The view from that citadel is one of the most magnificent in the world. A few columns exist in ruins in other parts of the city, mournfully elegant in their tale of fallen grandeur. The present city is a village of less than five thousand inhabitants. When the Roman Empire fell asunder and the Byzantine Empire rose to supremacy in the East, Greece became a part of it, remaining under the sway of the Emperor at Constantinople until the fourth Crusade (1203), when it fell to the lot of the Frankish princes. For two centuries and a half the Dukedom of Athens was a speck on the map of the East, and hardly more.



Corinthian Capital.

On the fall of Constantinople (1453) Greece passed under the Moslem rod. In 1687 the Christian League, under Venetian leadership, besieged and took Athens. A few years later the Venetians were driven out, and the Moslem once more had possession of Greece. From that time until the successful termination of the Greek rebellion the despotism of the Turk kept the country in a most deplorable condition of subjugation.



ANCIENT CORINTH.

The war for Grecian independence began in 1821. It was a remarkable struggle. The sympathies of the civilized world were enlisted in behalf of the country which had been so long the garden of civilization. Money and men were contributed from far and near. The most notable volunteer from without was Lord Byron, the poet. He had drunk deep at the fountain of Greek inspiration, and thither he went to help in the deliverance of Mod-

ern Greece from Turkish tyranny. He repaired to one of the Ionian isles, and met his death at Missolonghi, January 5, 1824.

During the year 1822 the island of Scio witnessed a most horrible massacre by the Turks, the population being reduced from 120,000 to 16,000 inhabitants. The Greeks achieved some brilliant victories by sea, and the next year a small band of Greek patriots fell upon the Turkish camp at Carpenesion, putting to the sword 800 Turks, with a loss on their side of only 50, but among the number was their gallant leader, Marco Botzaris, whose heroism was the final glory of the historic wars of Greece.

But in 1825 the superior numbers of the Moslem forces, led by the indomitable Ibrahim Pasha of Egypt, crushed out the revolution, for the time. Finally the Great Powers, England, France and Russia, interposed by diplomacy. The Allies proposed that Greece should constitute a tributary province, with the right to choose its own governors. Greece was willing to accept these terms, but the Ottoman Empire rejected them with scorn. The war then became a naval one between the Allies and the Turks, resulting, as was inevitable it should result, in the almost total destruction of the Turkish fleet. It may be said that from this time the Sultan has been, in the full sense of the term, "The sick man of the East." The "Eastern question" became a troublesome problem at once. It was not desired to weaken the Turkish Empire too much. For two years the Allies were uncertain what to do with their "white elephant." In the meanwhile there continued to be some fighting between the original belligerents.

In 1828 the Allies decided to create Greece an independent kingdom, offering the crown to Prince John of Saxony. He declined to accept it. The offer was then made to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. He accepted conditionally, the conditions not being satisfactory to the Guardian Powers. He was nominal king of Greece, however, until 1830. Otho, second son of Louis of Bavaria, was tendered the crown, after much delay and negotiation. In 1833 he assumed the reins of government, nominally, for he was only eighteen years of age at the time. The capital at that time was Nauplia, a small and inconsequential Peloponnesian city. In 1835 the capital was removed to Athens, where it has ever since remained, and of right belongs. At the same time Otho assumed full control of the government. The people demanded a constitution, with all the popular rights implied. This demand became so imperious and menacing that in 1843 the king complied. That was an important revolution, achieved without bloodshed. Affairs moved on with tolerable smoothness, the king yielding partial obedience to the constitution, until one day in October, 1862, when he and his queen returned from a short excursion among the islands of the Ægean sea, the royal yacht was met at Salamis by a deputation of citizens, and the king informed that his services were no longer needed. He took passage in a British man-of-war for Venice, and thence proceeded to Bavaria, to be lost henceforth from public view.

The people held an election for king, resulting in the choice of Prince George of Denmark, a younger brother of Alexandria, Princess of Wales. He accepted on condition that the Ionian Islands, which had constituted a nominal republic, under British protection, since 1814, should be annexed to the kingdom. This condition was acceptable to all the parties in interest. The new king was crowned George I., and assumed the reins in October, 1863, proving an acceptable sovereign. He may be said to have established a dynasty. His queen, Olga, is a member of the royal family of Russia.

The population of Greece in 1879, was 1,679,775. The legislative power is vested in a representative chamber called The Boule, elected by manhood suffrage for the term of four years. The Boule meets annually. The number of this body varies with the population. Under the present census it is 188. In the exercise of executive functions the king has a cabinet of eight responsible ministers. Ministerial changes are frequent, for popular favor in Greece is precarious. The education of the people is receiving considerable attention, but the masses are still densely ignorant. Not half the men can read, nor more than one-tenth of the women. All the able-bodied young men are liable to military service, as in Germany. About one-half of the people are agriculturists, and yet not more than one-sixth of the area is under cultivation, and agriculture is in a very backward state. Greece can boast only seven miles of railroad. That connects Athens with the port of Piræus. The country is almost roadless, and com-

munication exceedingly difficult, except by water. The principal production is currants, which are dried and exported in large quantities; certainly a most "lame and impotent conclusion" of Grecian greatness.

The Greek church is indeed the church of Greece, but the two terms are widely different, in import; Greece sustaining to the church named in its honor no such relation as Rome does to the Roman hierarchy. The modern Greeks are, for the most part, members of the orthodox branch of the Greek church. The papists and other Christians in the country number only a few thousand; the Jews about 2,500, and the Mohammedans less than a thousand. Religious toleration is guaranteed by the constitution. Nominally the Greek clergy owe allegiance to the Patriarch at Constantinople, but practically the control of ecclesiastical matters in that kingdom is vested in a permanent council, called the Holy Synod, consisting of the Metropolitan of Athens, and four archbishops and bishops, who during office reside at the capital. It is, virtually, a strictly national church.

The full name of the Greek church is "the Holy Oriental Orthodox Catholic Apostolic Church," the term "Catholic" being alike claimed by the Greek, Roman, and English churches, although usually applied only to the Roman. The Greek church has no unbroken history with sharply defined outlines, as the Roman and the Protestant churches have. It may truly be called the mother church. Nearly all the region visited by the Apostles belongs to it, so far as it is Christian at all. The language of the creeds, liturgies and theological literature of this community is the Greek, whatever the popular language of the laity may be. The numerical strength of this church is estimated at 80,000,000, or about one-half that of the Roman or the Mohammedan churches, and nearly the same as that of the Protestants. It is divided into three branches—the Orthodox, under the Patriarch of Constantinople, with the subordinate patriarchates of Alexandria, Jerusalem and Antioch; the orthodox church in Russia, under the Permanent Holy Synod of St. Petersburg and the Czar; and third, the church in Greece. There is a very considerable portion of the church which acknowledges the authority of the Pope of Rome, which yet clings to Greek church usages and ideas. They are called United Greeks, and are scattered through Turkey, Hungary, Galacia, Transylvania, and found even in Russia. The Nestorians, Jacobites, Armenians, Maronites and other Eastern "heretics," are the Protestants of the Orient, in an ecclesiastical point of view.

We will quote on this subject from that very learned scholar, Philip Schaff: "The history of the Greek church," he says, "is not disfigured by bloody tribunals of orthodoxy like the Spanish inquisition, nor systematic and long-continued persecutions, like the crusades against the Waldenses, Albigenses and Huguenots, with the infernal scenes of St. Bartholomew's massacre. Yet the Greek church of old has mercilessly expelled and exiled the Arian, Nestorian, Eutychian and other heretics, persecuted the Paulicians, and modern Russia rigidly prohibits secession from the orthodox national church, and all the children of mixed marriages where one parent belongs to it, must be baptized and educated in it." He might have added that there was never, anywhere or in any age, more cruel and heartless persecution than that practiced by the Greek Church of Russia during the present generation, in the treatment of Roman Catholic nuns in Poland. Dr. Schaff characterizes the Greek church as "a Patriarchal oligarchy in distinction from the papal monarchy." Instead of being forbidden to marry, as in the Romish communion, the Greek priests are compelled to marry. There are some Greek monks, like the community at Athos, but monasticism is not a prominent feature of the church. So there is oracular confession of the laity to the clergy, but not so markedly as in the Papal church. Baptism with the Greeks is by immersion, and that three consecutive times. The old Greek calendar, which is eleven days behind the new style introduced by Pope Gregory XIII., is still retained, notwithstanding the serious inconvenience of thus differing in the computation of time from all other Christian countries. The late Dean Stanley characterized the Greek worship as "a union of barbaric rudeness and elaborate ceremonialism."

And now we take our final leave of the Greeks to enter upon the career of the great nation of antiquity which alone can be compared with the Grecian in importance to the world. Fundamentally and essentially unlike, they have such fellowship in pre-eminence that each may well be called the counterpart of the other.

ANCIENT ITALY AND PRIMITIVE ROME.

CHAPTER XXII.

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE CITY OF ROME—THE PENINSULA OF ITALY—MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS—RACES AND CITIES—LATIUM AND ALBA LONGA COMPARED—LEGENDS AND HISTORY—ÆNEAS AND THE FAMOUS TWINS—THE FOUNDING OF ROME—THE RAPE OF THE SABINES—THE REIGN OF NUMA—THE TARQUINS—ETRURIA—PRIMITIVE AGRARIANISM—LUCIUS AND TULLIA—ROMAN COLONIAL POLICY—THE PUBLIC HIGHWAYS—TARQUIN THE PROUD AND THE LEGENDS OF HIS DAY—THE LAST OF THE LEGENDARY KINGS.

WE have been picking our way through the intricacies of a history which is the record of one people and many states; now we enter upon a history which is the record throughout of one state and many peoples. The states of Greece at many points of time were literally innumerable, and to follow the political divisions of Greece, not to say the Greeks, would be both impossible and unprofitable, but Rome gradually grew from a little village to an intercontinental Empire. From the days of Homer, whose grand epic has a historical basis and value, down to the mergence of Greece in Rome, is about a thousand years, and Roman history covers substantially the same length of time, as does also the history of philosophy and many other epochs. Without magnifying fanciful resemblances, we may ask the reader to note the apparent tendency of mankind to run in cycles of a chiliad, or in millenniums. The empire of Rome, from its inception to its fall, stood a little longer than that, but not much longer, and the same is true of the second empire, at Constantinople, sometimes called the Greek or Byzantine Empire, but which was, in point of fact, a continuation of the Roman.

ANCIENT ROME.

Pliny justly observed, "Rome is the mistress of the world and the metropolis of the habitable earth, destined by the gods to unite, civilize and govern the scattered races of men." Without anticipating events and, as it were, taking off the edge of the reader's appetite, it may be well to make a geographical study of this seat of empire.

The site of Rome is these seven hills: Palatinus, Germalus, Velia, Fagutal, Oppius, Cespius, Subura. There were four parts, or wards, from the earliest time, namely, Esquilina, Cœlina, Palatina and Suburbana. Three times was it nearly destroyed by fire,—first, by the Gauls; second, under (if not by), Nero; and third,

during the reign of Titus,—each time being rebuilt on a grander and better scale. The population amounted to 2,000,000, at times. The Tiber flows through it from north to south, and empties into the Mediterranean sea fourteen miles below the city. Five bridges span it. A wall twelve miles long encircles the city. The present city is mostly on the plain known as the Campus Martius, the hills being nearly deserted. It is safe to say that the original Romans knew very little of the world beyond their rustic burg. They were rude barbarians. Gradually, as their early traditional history shows, the horizon of their knowledge broadened, and the peninsula of Italy became known to them. They traced geographical lines with their swords, learning of other tribes and states as they came into hostile contact with them. The army of the Potomac, under the late Gen. Burnside, was sometimes called "Burnside's Geography Class," and every Roman army was in effect a class in geography, teaching the whole city as well as learning themselves, practical lessons in that branch of study. And theirs was not a mere seaside knowledge. Thorough and practical was the information gained.

The peninsula of Italy has an area of about 93,600 square miles, including all the country south of the Alps. The Greeks called the land Hesperia. The Apennines are a chain of mountains extending almost the entire length of Italy. The Alban Hills have been called "the central sanctuary of the Latin nations." Mons Sacer was a hill near Rome. Vesuvius is the most famous peak in Italy. That volcano was in a quiescent state many centuries, but in the year 79 occurred the terrible eruption which whelmed in utter ruin two magnificent cities, Pompeii and Herculaneum, and a smaller town, Stabiæ, still more remote. Besides the Tiber, Italy has her famous rivers, the Po, the largest of the peninsula, and the Rubicon, the northern boundary of Italy proper, rendered immortal by Cæsar. Along these and other rivers are fertile plains, and in some of the mountains rich deposits of minerals.

The different races of old Italy were five, not counting the Romans, who absorbed them all: the Pelasgi, the Osci, the Sabelli, the Umbri and the Etrusci. The first dwelt in the southeast and may have come originally from Greece; the second were central; the third spread over the western slopes, and included the powerful Samnites; the fourth held sway from the Adriatic to the Tyrrhene Sea, and from the mouths of the Po to those of the Tiber; the fifth, the Etruscans, were a distinct and powerful nation who made encroachments upon all the others and built up a powerful state, possessing many attributes of true greatness. Our information in regard to them, however, is mainly confined to such fugitive glimpses as Roman history affords in its early and uncertain period. We know that Etruria was a confederacy of twelve independent states, Torquinii, Veii, Volsinii, and Clusium being the more important. To conquer these states and destroy the cities, was the work of centuries.

Vicinity of Rome.

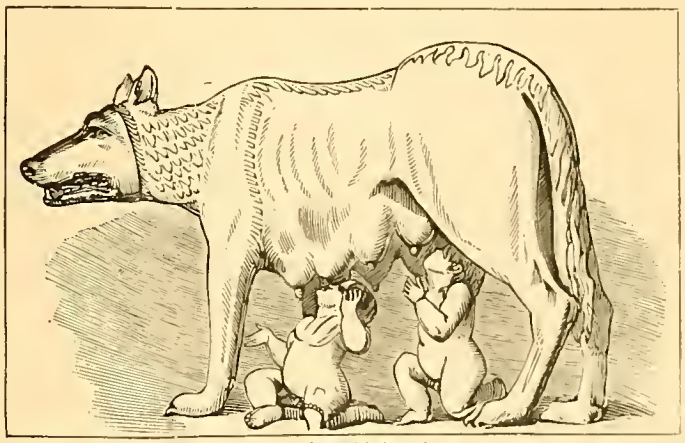
Latium was the old term applied to a region bounded on the north by the Tiber, east by the Marsi and Samnium, and southwest by the Tyrrhene Sea. Besides Rome, it included Tivoli, Ostia, Tusculum and Alba Longa, the latter being the parent city of Rome.

Of Magna Græcia and the Italian islands known to the Greeks, an account has already been given, and we are now prepared to explore the archives of the Rome of traditional kings.

The story elaborated by Virgil, of the founding of what became the Roman state by a band of Trojan refugees, may have some truth in it. There was certainly nothing improbable in the supposition, but it has no place in actual history. The founding of Rome as a city by Romulus and his brother Remus is hardly less poetic and fanciful than the exploits of Æneas, but until a comparatively recent date, it was supposed that a veritable history of Rome existed from the birth of those wolf-suckled twins to the extinguishment of the Western Empire. The truth is, however, that for about one-half of that period, the history is legendary.

The more notable persons and events in Roman history have been so critically investigated that there is hardly the shadow of a shade of real fact left. It is not until we come down to Scipio, midway between the two ends, that we encounter a famous Roman of whose actual life we have historic

data. Early Roman history has a deep interest, nevertheless, and an inestimable value, for with all its untrustworthiness in detail, it fairly represents the spirit of early Rome, and explains the phenomenal growth of a small town into the most far-reaching empire the world ever saw. It will not be our purpose to point out the probable history, in distinction from romance, in the records of those times, for it could not be done with any degree of accuracy, and if done, would be unsatisfactory. It is enough to call attention to the general fact at the outset, partly to guard against attaching too much importance to details, and partly as an explanation of the proposed disregard of all the details given of that period, except those which possess value in throwing light upon the Roman character. A pure fiction often has a positive and great importance in a historical point of view. The story of William Tell, for example, may be, as now claimed, a myth, but it none the less fairly represents the Swiss struggle for liberty. Again, George Washington's "little hatchet" never cut down a parental cherry-tree, but the story none the less fairly illustrates the truthfulness of "the father of his country." With this much prefatory to our narrative, we proceed.



The Wolf-suckled Twins.

Æneas, having finally reached Latium (Italy) notwithstanding the buffetings of Juno, had the good fortune and consideration to marry a royal maiden, and so became a ruler in a small way. His son, Ascanius, or Iulus, founded Alba Longa, and a dynasty which held sway for three hundred years, without traditions, till two brothers of the royal household, Numitor and Amulius, quarreled. The successful brother thought to perpetuate his family title by committing the only child of his brother, Rhea Silva, to a nunnery. She took the veil, as we would call it in our day, as a vestal virgin, by which vow she bound herself to perpetual virginity. But in those far-away days, fate was not balked by any little thing like that. The god of war, Mars, visited her by night, and the result of that divine favor was the ever-famous Romulus and Remus. Of course the royal uncle was horrified, and had no idea of accepting the theory of the immaculate conception. He caused the twins to be exposed, and, as he supposed, cut short in their career at once. But the friendly Tiber bore them to the foot of the Palatine in safety, and a she-wolf nourished them. With the blood of Mars and the milk of a wolf coursing through their veins, they were in a fair way to become good fighters, as, indeed, befitted the founders of a mighty empire.

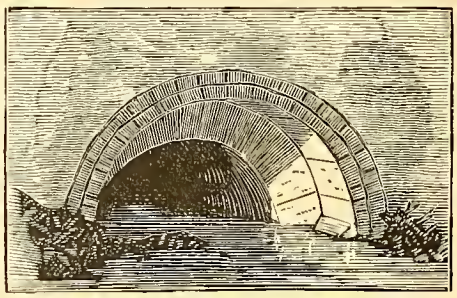
The king's shepherd, all unconscious of the origin of the foundlings, took them home and reared them as his own. In due time they became leaders of petty clans among their fellows, and their prowess came to the knowledge of their dethroned grandfather. The mystery of their parentage was also ascertained. Then the young men rallied their associates, made war upon the usurper, slew him, and received from their grateful grandfather a tract of land. The legend runs that Romulus built a wall for a city, and that Remus, in derision, jumped over it, whereupon the irate brother slew him. When the Romans were in deep affliction, ages later, they remembered with unavailing horror, that the foundations of their city were cemented with fraternal blood, albeit Romulus tried to carry it off bravely by exclaiming, "So perish all who dare to climb these ramparts."

Having a city, he wanted inhabitants. The outlaws and desperadoes of the vicinity gathered within the inclosure. It was a cave of Adullum. The gang (for such they really were) soon felt the need of female society, and their chief tried to negotiate for wives, but to no purpose. The outlaws who had rallied about his standard were not looked upon with favor as sons-in-law. Not to be baffled by refusal, he hit upon a ruse. He announced a public

festival in honor of a god, a sort of pagan camp-meeting, and invited his neighbors. They came, bringing their families with them, suspecting no treachery. At a given signal, the bachelors of Rome seized every man a woman, and fled within the inclosure. That was the famous Rape of the Sabines. It was not long before the outraged community rallied to the rescue and revenge. They made good headway, and would probably have destroyed the city at one blow had not the women themselves interfered. Having found that the "intentions" of the robbers were "honorable," they rushed between the combatants and made peace between them. The Sabines seemed quite ready to ratify the enforced nuptials, since those most interested were satisfied with the arrangement. Henceforth the Sabines and Romans became one people.

The next king after Romulus was Numa Pompilius, a Sabine. He has come down to us in tradition as a real statesman and philosopher, a man of learning, albeit not above practical deception. To give the laws which he promulgated special sanction, he pretended to have received them by divine inspiration, the nymph Egeria having been consulted by him in her grotto. To him are ascribed the religious institutions of the city. It is claimed that to him belongs the honor of putting an end to human sacrifices at Rome. His successor was Tullus Hostilius, a Roman chosen by the Sabines. His career was one of carnage and strife. For something over one hundred years, the monarchs were elected by the senators, and by slow degrees the territory tributary to Rome was enlarged.

The first real dynasty was the house of Tarquin. The founder of it, Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, is represented to have been an adventurer, the son of a Greek father and Etruscan mother, the tutor or guardian of the infant son of the fourth elective king. He abused his position to supplant his ward. Rome is supposed to have been one hundred and thirty-eight years old when Tarquin came to the throne. From his reign date the earliest public buildings and works. Etruria was the first Latin state to acquire some civilization, and when Rome had advanced far enough to be a little civilized, the inference was that an Etruscan king had done it. To him is attributed that gigantic sewer, Cloaca Maxima, which is still extant. Many of the costumes and customs of Rome are said to have been introduced at this time from Etruria, including the triumph, lictors, fasces, chairs, curule, and perhaps the toga.



Cloaca Maxima (in its present condition, 1881).

Tarquin was succeeded by his son-in-law, Servius Tullius. To him is accredited the honor of enlarging the city to the full size it maintained during the days of the republic, a city indeed, with its four quarters, the Palatine, the Suburban, the Cœline, and the Esquiline, and as many tribes or wards. The outside territory he divided into twenty-four tribes, or townships. These in turn he divided into classes and centuries. He was a friend of the people, especially in the distribution of the land. And now for the first time crops to the surface the jealousies and animosities between the plebeians and the patricians, the great division-line between the parties during the era of the republic. From the first, the land question, or agrarianism, as it was afterwards called, was the great issue at stake, much as the relative powers of the United States and the several states have been fundamental to the politics of this country from Washington's administration down. The good king was not allowed to finish his career in peace. He was ruthlessly slain, and in his place was installed Lucius, his son-in-law, a tool of the aristocracy. The reader will not fail to note the prominence given to sons-in-law in primitive Roman traditions.

This Lucius seems to have had an atrocious wife. She first slew her husband and sister that she might marry her brother-in-law, and then, when the ill-gotten husband threw the aged king down the palace stairs, she drove her chariot over his prostrate body. This monstrous dame bore the mild name of Tullia. She must have been the Eve of the Borgias. Lucius found Rome one of the forty-seven petty Latin states, which met together on the Alban Mount to worship Jupiter, having the slight-

est possible bond of union. To his reign is assigned the supremacy of Rome over all of them, besides the extension of Roman sway to some other parts of Italy. Lucius is supposed to have come to the throne when the city was two hundred and twenty years old, B. C. 534.

He was the first to establish a Roman colony. By his day the city began to be troubled with an excess of population, and very likely the popular clamor for land had a good deal to do with the colonization policy. Greek colonies were bound to the mother country by no political ties, but the colonies sent out by Rome were an integral part of the nation itself. They were subject and provincial, but as much a part of the Roman kingdom, republic or empire, as the case might be, as the states of this Union are which have been admitted since the federation of the original thirteen states. The people were Roman citizens as truly as if they lived on Capitoline Hill. The principle of representation was not allowed in the Roman government, and consequently the communities living in or near Rome had a decided advantage. It is as if an American citizen were obliged personally to appear at Washington city to have a vote in national politics. This advantage was not great, but the colonies remained loyal to their national allegiance, and thereto may be attributed in a very large measure the expansion of the little village of outlaws into a nation, extending from the British Isles to the far Orient.

Intimately connected with the political constitution which bound the parent city and her colonial offspring together, was the road system, which was as old apparently as the first colony. Between the city and the colony was built a broad and permanent highway, having for its primary object the establishment of military connection. Either could readily come to the assistance of the other in case of attack. Some of those old roads are still extant, and almost intact. They bespeak a very considerable degree of civilization. These roads, if not a fortunate accident, attest a prescience in statecraft unparalleled in all history, prior to the British policy by which a small island became the supreme empire, and of which we shall have occasion to speak hereafter.

Tradition presents only one more royal name: Tarquin the Proud. Many curious romances cluster around his name, or rather his supposed reign. He was not a romantic character himself. Brutus, who espoused the cause of the people, and who was the pride of the illustrious family who disappeared with the assassination of Cæsar, or rather the battle of Philippi, simulated idiocy to escape the murderous enmity of Tarquin. The immediate occasion of the uprising of the people was the pathetic tragedy of Lucretia. She was compelled at the point of the sword to submit to the lust of Sextus, the son and heir of the king. She was the fairest and most virtuous of wives. She made a statement of the case the next day to her husband and father, and then stabbed herself in their presence. Her dead body was carried to the Forum, her tale of wrong insufferable rehearsed, and the people adjured to rise against the tyrant. The appeal was successful and the dynasty overthrown, never to be restored. That was B. C. 509, and for nearly five centuries thereafter Rome was a republic. All in vain the dethroned Tarquin sought to recover the kingdom, assisted by Etruscan intervention. Lars (King) Porsena of Clusium tried to crush the freedom of Rome, but he signally failed. He marched his soldiers to the Tiber, and thought to cross the bridge which would have made him master of the situation, but Horatius Cocles defended it so gallantly, that the Romans had time to cut it down before the enemy could cross. After staying an army in its course, this prodigy in arms plunged into the river and safely swam to the opposite side.

Porsena's ineffectual efforts were not exhaustive. Servius Tarquin seems to have been able to rally other Latin allies. The noted battle of Lake Regillus, near Alba, belonged to this struggle. We are told that the Roman general, Valerius, vowed a temple to Castor and Pollux in the crisis of this battle, and that presently two youths of eminent beauty and stature were seen fighting on white horses in front of the Romans, and turning the enemy to flight. Finally Servius was slain, and his uncrowned father eked out a miserable old age at the court of the tyrant of Cumæ. We hear no more of the Tarquins nor of crowns until the Cæsars.

SEMI-HISTORIC ROME.

CHAPTER XXIII.

REPUBLICANISM IN ROME—FIRST CONSULS—RIVALRY OF CLASSES—ESTABLISHMENT OF TRIBUNATE—AGRARIANISM AND THE PLEBS—CINCINNATUS AND DENTATUS—VIRGINIUS AND VIRGINIA—CORIOLANUS AND HIS PRIDE—GREEK AND ROMAN IDEALS COMPARED—LATIUM—INVASION OF THE GAULS—THE GAULS AND LATINS—ROME AND ITALY.

WE shall hear no more of kings. That grandest of all Romans, Julius Cæsar, was assassinated on the mere suspicion of kingly ambition. In the popular mind of to-day, emperor is a more imposing title, suggestive of more real power, than that of king, but originally, it was little different from consul or president for life. The struggle through which Rome passed in displacing monarchy with republicanism, must have been a long and desperate one, more terrible by far than the legends represent, else the entire people, from patrician to plebeian, would not have had such profound and lively repugnance to monarchy. That repugnance was the one bond of fellowship among all classes. However high party spirit and animosity might run, there were no royalists in Rome. Civil wars, dictators, and every possible experience came, without so much as suggesting, apparently, a resort to monarchical institutions, and the first serious apprehension of such a resort did not come until some four hundred and fifty years after the last of the Tarquins. The principle of republicanism could hardly have a firmer hold upon a nation than it had upon Rome during the consular period. In this immediate connection, it is proposed to bring out the more interesting and important facts and legends of the republic during the centuries of merely traditional history, from the expulsion of the Tarquins to the first Punic war.

The first Consuls of Rome were Junius Brutus and Tarquinius Collatinus. The name given to the latter shows the shadowy uncertainty of the history of that day, and suggests that perhaps, the overthrow of monarchy was gradual. There had by that time grown up some considerable commerce, and commercial law began to be a prominent feature. Evidently the early Romans had no pity for insolvent debtors, and enacted rigorous penalties for the enforcement of business contracts. The rich and the poor formed the two parties in the state, during the misty morning hours of the Republic. The patricians tried to perpetuate themselves as a landed aristocracy, while the plebeians insisted upon a fair share of the realty, and less severe penalties for unfortunate poverty. Twice during the first half century of the republic it was necessary to appoint a dictator, or absolute autocrat of the state, to concentrate the entire force of the nation as against hostile neighbors. In all such emergencies, the

rivalries of parties and factions were forgotten, but only to revive as soon as the military necessity for harmony was removed.

The first noteworthy romance (for such it must be called) of the Republic occurred in the year B. C. 495, when the first Appius Claudius was one of the consuls, and the popular Servilius the other. By that time the party feeling was so strong that the plebs refused to take up arms to repulse an incursion of the Volsci, until solemnly promised the redress of their wrongs. The enemy having been driven back, the senate refused to carry out the agreement. Another dictator was appointed to negotiate terms of reconciliation, for the plebeians threatened civil war, and the senate was frightened. This dictator sent Menenius Agrippa to negotiate peace. He is said to have narrated to them the famous fable of the mutiny of the eyes, ears, hands, etc., against the belly, which finally terminated in the conclusion by all the members, that each was necessary to the whole. This view seems to have been shared by both factions at Rome, for the Senate made liberal concessions to the common people, and henceforth there was a gradual enlargement of popular rights, with only rare, infrequent and temporary reactions in favor of the aristocracy.

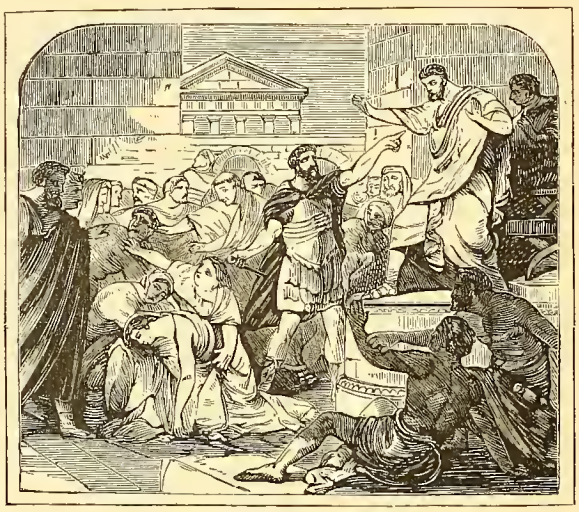
It was perhaps as the result of this popular uprising, sometimes called "the secession of the Mons Sacer," that the institution of the Tribunatus was established. The tribunes were magistrates charged with the duty of conserving and advancing the interests of the common people. The two consuls were supposed, originally, to represent both parties, but the aristocratic element having gained the consular ascendancy, the plebeians insisted upon having two tribunes. The first selections were Sicinius and Brutus (the frequency of the latter name being suggestive of the legendary character of our information). The office of tribune survived and had its uses in accordance with its original plan, long after the expansion and wealth of Rome had enabled all classes of the citizens to be patricians. "When," says a great Roman historian, "after the vast conquest of Rome, the struggle of classes lay no longer between patricians and plebeians, but between the aristocracy, or the nobles, and the heterogeneous populace which constituted the mass of the citizens, this institution supported again the cause of the multitude, and secured its final triumph in the establishment of the empire. The emperors themselves assumed the name and office of the tribunes, and as such claimed a legal prerogative for the protection of popular rights, and they, in their turn, converted their prerogative to an instrument for admitting the provinces into the privileges of the city, and transforming all the subject races of the empire into Roman citizens." Surely the secession of the sacred mountain was one of the most important revolutions of all history, however insignificant it may have seemed at the time, and however legendary may be our information as to its details.

The land question assumed especial prominence in the infancy of the Republic. Agrarian laws were passed during the consulate of Spurius Cassius, B. C. 493, amid great opposition from the patricians. The great excitement on this subject was much later, however, when the Gracchi came forward as the leaders of the popular cause. There were two kinds of land held by the aristocracy, and none by the poorer class. What was called Quiritary land belonged to the occupants in fee simple, but much of the territory round about was public domain, the title being in the state. This part of the *Ager Romanus* was monopolized by the patricians on the payment to the state of a nominal rent. The plebs insisted upon having a share of the state lands, not as tenants at the will of landlords, but as citizens in the enjoyment of a political right. The conflict must have been sharp, bitter and protracted. The plebeians seem to have gained much in theory, but little in fact. The legislation secured, amounted to hardly more than a "barren ideality." More than once the common people, when brought face to face with a foreign foe, seized the opportunity to exact concessions from the senate, a body composed of the higher class, but there were other interests which came to the front.

The agrarian laws of Spurius Cassius required the state to divide among the poorer class a portion of its own actual property (the primitive homestead act), and at the same time to exact strict payment by the patricians of the rents due the state, the same to be appropriated to the support of the citizens when called to arms. It was about this time that the tribunes of the people were invested with a veto power upon the enactments of the Senate, and given personal inviolabil-

ity. Gradually they gained ground, and when above the reach of patrician bribery or intimidation, they were very useful. But neither consuls nor tribunes were allowed to wield the superior power of the state with regularity.

In the period under consideration dictators were numerous. The names of no less than seven appear in a period of twenty-seven years. As modern states under constitutional government, whether republics or monarchies, feel obliged under emergencies to suspend the writ of *habeas corpus*, or even to declare martial law, so the Roman Republic frequently delegated absolute power to some eminent citizen, usually a great soldier. The most illustrious of these dictators was Cincinnatus, the ideal patriot of ancient history. He is represented as a pure-minded, unambitious farmer, quietly following the plow, except when the necessities of the state imperatively called for his services. All classes had unbounded confidence in him. A patrician of the bluest blood, he was no less a man of the people. Nature came the nearest to realizing that lofty ideal citizen when it produced a Washington. Without being a reformer, he was in the grandest sense of the term, a conservative. He flourished about three hundred years after Romulus, and four hundred and fifty before Christ.

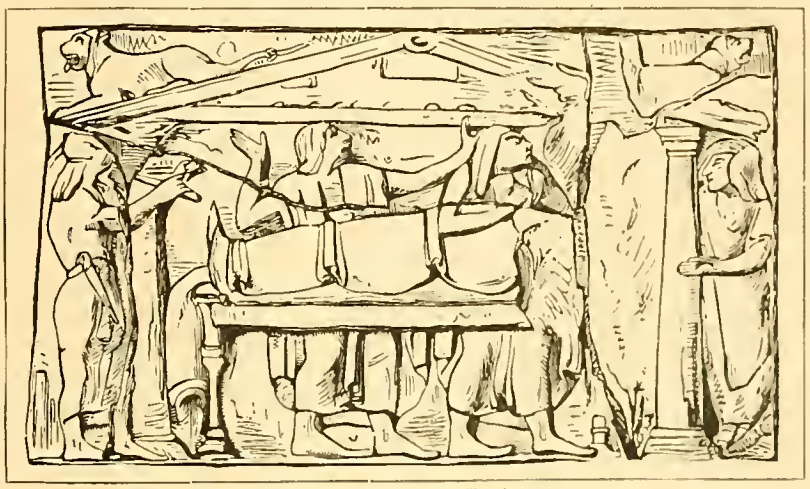


Death of Virginia.

Among the tribunes, the most illustrious name is that of Dentatus. He was the soldier *par excellence* of legendary Rome. As brave as Achilles, he never "sulked in his tent," nor was he invulnerable except in his heel. Had he been, he could never have been wounded, for he never retreated. He boldly met every danger. His scars were numerous, and all in the front. He seemed to bear a charmed life, but fell at last on the field of battle, not however, a victim of the foe, his death-wound being the result of treachery. The Consul, Appius Claudius, a name already odious, but rendered doubly so by this later bearer of it, determined to get rid of the dauntless champion of popular rights. He gave secret orders that Dentatus should not be allowed to come out of the battle alive. The fact that the chief hero of the Romans, a people that fairly worshiped personal bravery, was believed to have sprung from the plebeian ranks, and had been assassinated by the orders of a haughty patrician while fighting the common enemy, shows the strength of the class prejudice.

Another noted plebeian of that period was Virginius, the father of Virginia whose story, like that of Lucretia, has ever served as a monument to female virtue. Virginius was also a Tribune. While he was upon the "tented field," Appius, who was as lustful as he was proud, saw the daughter, who was just then ripening into womanhood, on her way to school attended by her nurse. He conceived an unhallowed passion for her, and set about gratifying it. A supple tool pretended that Virginia was his long lost slave. A trial was had, and false witnesses proved the claim. The court as well as the witnesses were bribed. But tidings of the horrible fate that awaited the virgin were brought to the father just as he was mourning the death of Dentatus (not yet aware of the real cause of the old soldier's death). He hastened home, too late to save his daughter, except by plunging his dagger into her breast. This one remedy he applied, and as Lucretia was enshrined in the Roman heart as a martyr to matronly virtue, so Virginia is the ideal of virginal purity. "Death before dishonor," was the sentiment in both cases. It is not too much to say that the modern world, as well as Ancient Rome, is the better for these two legends, for such they undoubtedly were. Taken together, they point a most impressive moral. As in the case of Lucretia, so in the case of Virginia, "the blood of the martyrs was the seed" of reform, and contributed powerfully to the popular cause.

Another noted character of the period under consideration was Coriolanus. He was quite as proud as Appius Claudius, but his was the pride of personal character. He scorned to stoop, and is the typical aristocrat. For his valiant services in battle, and his nobility of character, he was the pride of the city. All classes were disposed to do him reverence. By the exercise of the least degree of the arts of a politician, he could have been the pet of all the people, but he despised the plebeians. In him centered all the prejudice of the patrician. Scorning "the vulgar herd," he let it be known perfectly well that he would not, literally speaking, turn his hand over to gain the favor of the multitude. The result was that he was banished, and in banishment offered his services to the Volscians, against whom he had recently led the Roman legions in triumph. His personal prowess turned the scale, and Rome was at his mercy. Deputations besought his pardon and his leniency. To them all he turned a deaf ear, until at last his own wife, mother and child came out to him. Then anger melted into love and gentleness.



Relief on an Etruscan Tomb.

Such were the ideals held before the Roman gaze for generations, as typical characters, ideals of the more pronounced Roman characteristics. Others followed at a later date, but of more historic accuracy of outline. The heroes of legendary Greece seemed wholly deficient in moral stamina, or even the conception of morality. Herein Rome shows a very marked superiority, although far less civilized in intellectual culture.

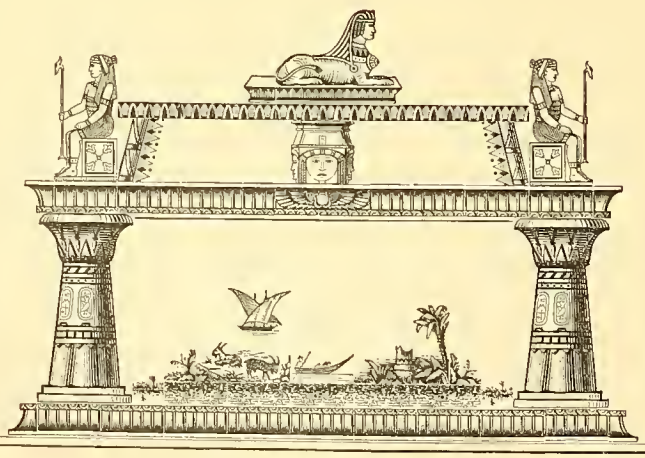
Besides the struggles between patricians and plebeians, relating to civil rights and privileges, in which the lower classes made some gains, and numerous petty conflicts with neighboring states in which the whole people shared in an inconsequential way, there were several really great wars, culminating, notwithstanding some serious disasters, in making Rome master of Italy, the position it occupies when brought into conflict with Carthage. It is evident from glimpses caught here and there, that Etruria was long the most civilized state in Italy, not counting the few Greek colonies in the south. Etruscan art was very considerable, and there is good reason to believe that a valuable Etruscan literature once existed. There were other states in Latium, which were somewhat more advanced than Rome, but the Romans were desperate warriors and had a colonial policy which gradually helped extend the state. The conquest of Etruria seems to have been a very close contest. If not, the Romans were tempted to abandon their own rude and unwholesome town (for Rome was never a good city, from a sanitary point of view) and settle in the Etruscan city of Veii, which was about twelve miles beyond the Tiber. It took thirty years to capture the city; that is, thirty years from the time the first attempt was made until the last one, which culminated in success. Camillus was the General under whom the capture was made. That was in B. C. 396. That year was memorable for the fall of Veii, which Camillus is said to have torn down, removing the building material to Rome, lest the party favoring the transfer of the capital should finally carry the day.

But the year was still more memorable for the raid of the Gauls. Now, for the first time, we confront the aborigines of France, a people with which Rome had a great deal to do through many centuries. The Gauls, who came finally to be subjects of imperial Rome, came upon the stage of history as wild marauders. In their savage enterprise, they had crossed the Alps, and penetrated southward.

desolating Italy as they went. Among the places which they ravaged was Rome, which must have been a feeble town, although nearly four hundred years old. Their march was victorious. Brennus, their leader, was a "mighty man of war," not covetous of lands, but greedy-eyed for personal property of all sorts. It is by no means certain that the Romans do not owe the fall of Veii to these barbarians rather than to their own prowess. Be that as it may, they were an overmatch for the Romans. On the banks of the Allia, eleven miles from Rome, the two armies met, the representatives of the peoples destined to many a desperate encounter in coming ages. The Gauls utterly routed the Romans and drove the few survivors into the city in headlong haste, boldly pushing their way within the walls, the people taking refuge in the Capitol. In after times the Romans pictured the senators calmly pursuing the business of legislation when the Gauls came upon them. This of course was a preposterous invention. The indubitable fact is, that Rome was at the mercy of the Gauls, who pillaged and sacked until their greed was glutted. The Capitol escaped the ravages of flame, but not the city. The proud Romans attributed its salvation to divine interposition. The horde glutted their barbaric lust for spoils, and left the city, which never suffered like disaster again until the Goths and Vandals took it at the final fall of Rome.

Besides the Etruscans were the Samnites, a Latin people of great military strength, as compared with the Rome of that day. For a long series of years there was war between the two peoples. Samnium had the alliance of Etruria, and is said to have secured aid from the Gauls. But all things have an end, and the Samnite war or wars (for there were three of them) which began B. C. 343, closed B. C. 282. There were several famous names in connection with these wars, Manlius Torquatus, Valerius Corvus, and others, but none of the details are worthy of record here. It is enough to say, that by the time Rome had stood four hundred years, it was the master of Italy, except the Greek cities, and the citizens of Latium became citizens of Rome, only with some restrictions in their rights.

That consummation, so gradual, but all the more secure, put an end to the struggle between the patricians and the plebeians. Henceforth, urban inhabitants or citizens of the city were aristocrats. To have ancestry strictly Roman, was enough. "The first families" joined in asserting superiority over the Latin citizens, as in later centuries all the Latin citizens accounted themselves vastly superior to the outsiders, however complete their citizenship. Rome, in brief, is now the capital of Italy, and proud alike of her Dentatus and her Coriolanus, and the terms patrician and plebeian came gradually to designate the inevitable social distinctions of a large community, rather than distinct factions and castes.



ROME AND CARTHAGE.

CHAPTER XXIV.

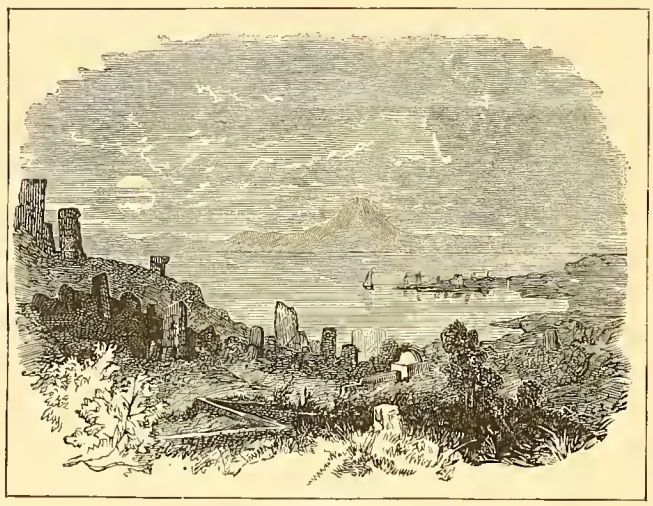
PYRRHUS AND HIS ELEPHANTS—CARTHAGE AND ITS PLACE IN HISTORY—THE FIRST PUNIC WAR—HAMILCAR AND HANNIBAL—THE SECOND PUNIC WAR—HANNIBAL CROSSES THE ALPS—THE BATTLE OF CANNÆ—THE FABIAN POLICY—SCIPIO AND THE WAR IN AFRICA—THE FURTHER CONQUESTS OF ROME—THE THIRD PUNIC WAR AND THE FALL OF CARTHAGE.

"WHAT an arena do we leave for the Carthaginians and Romans to contend on!" Such is the exclamation attributed to Pyrrhus of Epirus, cousin of Alexander the Great. The remark is no doubt apocryphal, as are the details given of the war which Pyrrhus made upon Rome. But it is highly probable that he foresaw a desperate conflict between them. At the time at which we have arrived, Rome is master of Italy, except the Grecian towns on the coast, and they dared not trust to their own valor. They induced the king of Epirus to come to their defense. He brought a few Epirotes with him, and a kind of cavalry heretofore unknown to the Romans, namely, elephants. Greek and Roman arms were thus brought into conflict, and in the first engagement Pyrrhus was victorious. His own losses, however, were heavy. "One more such victory," he said, "and I am ruined." He did not care to follow up his advantage, and tried the virtue of negotiation, and if we may believe Roman tradition (for our facts are still shadowy) the Greek was profoundly impressed with the incorruptibility, heroism, and manliness of the Romans. He moved on without accomplishing anything decisive, going to the help of some Greek colonists against Carthaginian interlopers. It was not long before he returned and had another battle with the Romans. This time he was thoroughly beaten, and returned to his own country in disgrace. That was the last aggressive war on Rome by the Greeks. It served as a prelude, and hardly more, to the Punic wars. Acquaintance with the elephants of Pyrrhus prepared the legions to meet the shock of Hannibal and his elephants. Pyrrhus was actuated, apparently, by no settled animosity, nor did he have any conception of Roman destiny. He must have seen in the citizens of Rome a community of rather

Pyrrhus of Epirus.

interesting barbarians, and that is about all. The Carthaginians may be said to have been the first people, beyond the narrow limits of Italy, to resolutely attempt to thwart the "manifest destiny" of Rome.

Carthage was the capital of a republic of the same name, on the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, near the site of the modern Tunis. It was a Phœnician city, an offshoot of Tyre, founded B. C. 850. It had a vast commerce and a splendid civilization, including a literature, but the final success of the Romans in destroying it involved the loss of that literature. Consequently we know very little about Carthage, except as it is derived from Roman sources, and from Polybius, a Greek, who was present at its destruction, as the friend of the victorious Scipio, and whose work has been all lost, with the exception of a few chapters.



CARTHAGE.

The Carthaginians were called *Punei*, hence the three wars with Rome were called the Punic wars. They were a very enterprising people. Their commerce extended wherever ships sailed in those days, and a vast inland trade was carried on with the Numidians, and other African and nomadic tribes. The population of the city is supposed to have been about 700,000. The government seems to have been quite similar to that of Rome; an aristocratic republic. In carrying forward commercial enterprise, it was necessary to establish trading-posts here and there. For that reason Carthage long enjoyed the control of a very considerable amount of foreign territory, not acquired for the ordinary purposes of conquest and dominion, but for the uses of traffic. According to Polybius, all the islands of the western Mediterranean belonged to Carthage, besides much territory in Spain. At the time the first Punic war began, B. C. 264, a very considerable area of land about the city was under a high state of cultivation. The nobility took delight in agriculture, and the mechanical arts were not neglected. At that time they were a far more civilized people than the Romans, and they might have well looked down with lofty scorn upon the rude barbarians of the Tiber.

The immediate occasion of the war between the two republics was the attempt of Carthage to gain possession of Sicily, an island about the size of the State of Maryland, and the most important in the Mediterranean. It contained a flourishing Greek colony. It is worthy of remark that although Athens was a great commercial center, a little *passè* then, but long prominent, it never came into conflict with Carthage. Sicily was too near Italy to make the establishment there of a Punic stronghold tolerable in the eyes of Rome, which by this time had become master of Italy, and was in no mood to brook intervention from the Southwest. Seeing that two great powers were thus brought into conflict, Pyrrhus may reasonably have withdrawn, in the hope of a life-and-death struggle between these two republics which should pave the way for the Epirotes to ride in triumph over both. If he held any such theory he was destined to disappointment, the real disaster of the war being confined to one of the combatants, the other gaining in proportion to its rival's loss.

The Romans were successful in driving the Carthaginians from Sicily, or rather, they and their allies were successful, for in the beginning of the conflict Rome was not single-handed by any means. The Carthaginians were compelled to give up their enterprise. They would have been content, probably, to go on with their commerce without further combat with the Romans. They do not appear to have seen a rival on the Tiber, but the Romans were not content to let the matter rest there. They carried the war into Africa, assuming the aggressive. A naval battle was fought not long after, in

which, to let them tell it, the Romans performed prodigies. They were not sea fighters, but they grappled the enemies' ships, boarded them and waged a hand-to-hand fight, for which the Carthaginian mercenaries were not prepared. The victory of Mylæ was the Trafalgar of the Punic war, and the Romans never wearied of boasting of it. They took from Carthage several outlying posts, but on the continent of Africa they experienced terrible disasters. Regulus, the hero of the first Punic war, as conducted by land, was not properly supported. His army was terribly defeated and himself taken prisoner. He was sent as an envoy of peace to Rome, where he had the heroism to advise the senate to reject the terms offered, and then bore back the refusal of his country to entertain the idea of a cessation of hostilities, while under the cloud of disaster. His patriotism cost him his life, but the persistence of Rome was rewarded. After dragging along twenty-four years the first Punic war ended in an agreement on the part of Carthage to give up all claims to Sicily, restore her prisoners and pay to Rome a considerable indemnity. The losses on both sides had been large without being at all decisive. It may be said that both were weary and took a rest, with no thought of permanent peace.

Hannibal's Vow.

Twenty years elapsed between the first and the second Punic wars. To Carthage those were years of wasting civil strife. The unhappy republic was the prey of party conflicts, involving serious loss. One faction was in favor of strict attention to business, the other, insisting that a more military character must be given to the state, and that the warlike power which had arisen in Italy must be crushed before commerce could prosper on a solid foundation. The leaders of the two parties, Hanno and Hamilcar, when the issue was raised, died during the cessation of hostilities, and Hannibal, son of the great soldier Hamilcar, came to the front as the worthy successor of his martial father. At the age of twenty-six, he became the General of the Carthaginian army in Spain, for in Iberia, as the ancients called it, Carthage had very important possessions. Tradition has it, that at the age of nine his father took him to the temple and made him swear eternal enmity to Rome. If he did take such an oath, right loyally did he observe it.

Hannibal.

Turning now to Rome, we find that the interval of peace with Carthage was a season of preparation. Some fighting was necessary to maintain the supremacy of Latium, and hold the Gauls in check. Sardinia and Corsica were conquered and a large part of Illyria overrun. Rome asserted herself in the affairs of Greece. The famous Flaminian Way, from Rome to the Gallic frontier near Ariminum, was constructed, giving the consul Flaminius a reputation second only to Appius, who built the Appian Way. Marcellus, a plebeian, yet a nobleman, carried the Roman arms to triumph over an alliance of Gauls and Germans. The Carthaginians had indeed gained much in Spain, but the extension of Roman power was far the greater of the two. The second Punic war began, however, with great advantage on the part of Carthage, from the fact that it had the services of one of the greatest warriors of history, for Hannibal ranks with Alexander, Cæsar, Napoleon and Grant.

The summer of B. C. 218 witnessed the beginning of the second Punic war. The young Carthaginian General crossed the Ebro with a hundred thousand men and thirty-seven elephants, resolved to enter the Roman territory by way of the Pyrenees and the Alps. The undertaking was one of the most difficult ever planned, the distance being eight hundred miles. The very fact that he must subsist off the tribes along the route, made the entire march the invasion of a hostile country. He left detachments behind at several points, to hold in check the

enemies he had made and subdued. He turned the Pyrenees by taking the coast line, and probably intended to outflank the Alps also. The Romans were expecting nothing of the kind. They had designed sending Scipio to attack Hannibal in Spain, and Sempronius was to march upon Carthage itself. The latter had set sail before the news of this aggressive movement was received. Scipio was directed to intercept Hannibal at the Rhone, but he was too late. The great soldier had got beyond him. Looking back upon it all, one is surprised that Hannibal did not await the attack, being far better prepared to meet it then than later; but he evidently misjudged the nature of Roman rule in Italy. Thinking it like Carthaginian rule in Africa, he supposed that he had only to reach Latium to have the alliance of the Latins, and so he avoided an engagement by trying one of the most difficult passes of the Alps, probably the Little St. Bernard. The sufferings of his men were terrible, and the losses immense, so late was the season. When at last the army of invasion came down into the sunny valleys of the Cisalpine, it had dwindled to twenty thousand foot, six thousand horse, and seven elephants. Worst of all, there were no allies. He was in the enemy's country in an unexpected sense. And now the genius of Hannibal was put to the test. Appreciating the situation, his first care was to gain a victory, however small the scale, in the hope of thus winning allies. He succeeded. The skirmish of the Ticinus brought him thousands of Gauls, and now he was eager for a battle with Scipio, especially as the latter would soon be reinforced by Sempronius. The battle of Trebia was fought, Scipio having been joined by Sempronius, and the latter being in command. The result was a great victory for Hannibal. Early the next year he crossed the Apennines and tried to provoke another battle there. Failing in this, he pushed on into the heart of Italy, the very valley of the Tiber. It was then necessary for the Roman legions to follow him. Another battle was fought, this time by the waters of Lake Trasimenus, and again Hannibal was victorious. By this time the Roman senate was seriously alarmed. The crisis of Rome had come, and the nation was threatened with disintegration. A victorious foe was devastating the country with impunity. To fight, was to run the risk of more defeat, and to avoid conflict, was to encourage devastation. Finally, a conflict became inevitable. In B. C. 216 was fought the immortal battle of Cannæ, on the borders of Apulia. Both sides were gathered there in full force, as if the fate of Rome were in the balance. Again Hannibal was victorious. The slaughter was terrible. Forty-five thousand Romans were lost, including a large number of senators and the Consul Paulus. Polybius puts the loss at seventy thousand. But all was not lost. Cannæ was two hundred miles from Rome, separated from it by mountains and rivers. Then, too, the conquerors must needs gorge themselves with plunder. "To the victors belong the spoils." Had the army of invasion been content to take advantage of the success, even Rome would have been laid in ruins. Once before the Gauls had devastated it, but Camillus restored it. Had the Carthaginians razed the walls, no third Romulus or second Camillus would have appeared. The destroyer would have looked carefully to that. But what the bravery of Roman arms could not do, the richness of Italian spoils effected. It is said that three bushels of gold rings were taken from the fingers of the fallen legionaries. However that may have been, it is certain that the mercenaries and allies of Carthage gave themselves up to rapine and plunder, thus throwing away the opportunity of final victory.

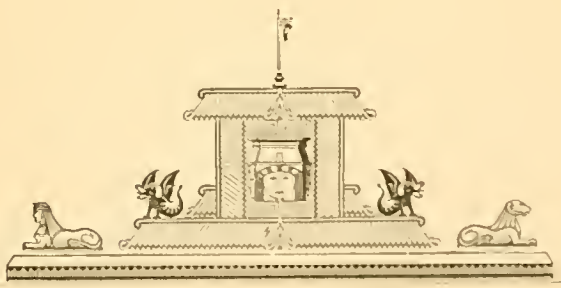
To follow the fortunes of the second Punic war in its details, would be uninteresting. Henceforth, the policy of Rome was to detach the allies from Hannibal, and worry him out by delays. Fabius was the consul who advised this course, and from that day to this the "Fabian policy" has been a proverbial term. Every nerve was strained to maintain the Roman army. Debtors, criminals and slaves were enlisted. Hannibal kept up the devastation, and even appeared before the walls of Rome. But the Romans all this while were busy in Spain and Carthage, also at Syracuse. Their aim was to so harass and punish the Carthaginians that they would recall Hannibal before he had executed his full purpose, and in this they were successful. By carrying the war into Africa they so far alarmed the citizens of Carthage that they felt compelled to abandon the aggressive policy, and in a republic not even a Hannibal can defy the popular voice. While Fabius kept up just enough of activity to prevent the fall of Rome, Scipio "pushed things" in Africa so vigorously that in B. C. 201 Carthage sued for

peace and submitted to ignominious terms. Hannibal had inspired such terror that when he set sail from Crotonia, in the fall of 203, Rome felt infinite relief, and when Scipio wrung from the enemy humiliating concessions, Roman joy knew no bounds. He was held in the highest repute as the savior of his country and the greatest of warriors. Carthage was at his mercy. He could have razed it to the ground, but he was not in favor of any such policy. He did not demand the surrender of Hannibal, now in disgrace, although it was not his fault that Rome was not at the mercy of Carthage. It was a test of national character, of popular endurance; Roman heroism was an overmatch for Carthaginian civilization.

The victory of Zama near the city of Carthage had effaced the memory of Tarentum and Cannæ. Scipio Africanus, as he was now called, might doubtless have been consul for life, but he was a true patriot. As his humanity saved Carthage from destruction, so his patriotism saved republicanism at Rome intact.

Rome was now the foremost military power in the world. The empire of Alexander had fallen to pieces, and the greatest of the fragmentary kingdoms, Egypt, had developed a more wholesome ambition than lust for dominion. The Roman legions were soon recruited and turned eastward. With the subjugation of Carthage all the region west of Rome was under Roman dominion, except the barbarians. To reduce Greece, was an easy task. Macedonia was feeble, and the various confederacies of Greece illy prepared to cope with the great and centralized republic. From Greece the victors passed to Asia, and made serious inroads into the empire of Antiochus. In fine, the Roman conquests of this period, without being brilliant, were decisive, and as rapid as could be desired. Rome adhered to her original policy of digesting her conquests. In the meanwhile Carthage was slowly dying, suffering the agonies of mortification. Hedged about and deprived of commerce or mercenaries, it was the mere shadow of its former self. Hannibal was the most unpopular and unhappy of men, and finally died in sorrow and exile in the year B. C. 183. In that same year Scipio died also.

It was not until B. C. 148 that Carthage was destroyed. The third Punic war was hardly a war at all. The party led by Cato, the pedantic censor, insisted that Carthage must be destroyed, seemingly afraid that something might transpire to renew its lease of life. The senate became tired of the demand for its destruction, and ordered it, more to stop the annoyance of Cato's harsh croak than from any real fear of its former rival. The Carthaginians made a brave but ineffectual resistance. Another Scipio led the Romans in this inglorious war. And now, after an illustrious career of seven centuries, Carthage was literally wiped from the face of the earth, and henceforth, until her final fall, Rome is destined to meet no really formidable enemy. Whatever combats she may have waged in the legendary days of youth and infancy, it may be said, that within the purview of history, Carthage was the only actually dangerous rival of Rome.



LAST CENTURY OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC.

CHAPTER XXV.

A Century of Blood—The March of Conquest—The Harvest of Power—Area of the Republic—The Catos; the Censor and the Younger—The Gracchi—Caius Marius—Sulla and Marius—The Unification of Italy—Sulla Supreme—Burning of the City—Latium no More—Sulla the Dictator—Sulla's Character and Work—Pompey the Great—He Suppresses Piracy—Judea and Spain Taken—Pompey and Cæsar—Cicero and the Conspiracy of Cataline —Julius Cæsar in the West—His First Consulate—Froude's Cæsar.

WHEN the second Punic war closed, there existed no nation which could stay the march of empire upon which the Eternal City then entered. From the failure of Hannibal's plan of conquest, to the return of Cæsar from the subjugation of Western Europe, including England and a large part of Germany, a period of something over a century, the world was fairly drenched with blood. Frequent were the civil wars of Rome, and almost constant were her aggrandizements.

It would be easy, but unprofitable, to trace the details of that gory century. A great deal of historical space has been devoted to it, but there were no really great battles fought. The gradual expansion of the Roman Empire was as much due to its political constitution as to the heroism of its soldiers. It was the policy of Rome to make her victims her partners in the fruits and honors of victory, to an extent wholly unknown to the world before her day. It is true that no such policy was pursued toward Carthage, but that was an exceptional case. This peculiarity of Rome has been pointed out before. It antedates authentic history, and was adhered to with a steadiness of purpose which is the proudest monument to Roman genius.

It may be well, first of all, to point out the territorial limits of Rome in its glory. The little village of Romulus had, by the time at which we have arrived, attained to such dimensions, that it could defy all human limitations to its expansion, and while it took a century to actually acquire world domain, it is true that when Carthage passed under the yoke, the whole world was at its mercy. It required a period of one hundred years to harvest the field, but the real credit of it all dates back to the calamity of Carthage.

The Roman Empire, as now gradually developed, was tri-continental. In Africa it stretched from the Straits of Babel-mandel, on the south point of the Red Sea, westward through the Straits of Gibraltar, and then southward to the desert of Sahara, including part of Abyssinia, all of Egypt, Barca, Tripoli, Algiers and Morocco. In Asia, its main possession was Asia Minor or Turkey, with a part of Arabia and Persia. Julius Cæsar contemplated inroads into the far Orient, but he was cut off before carrying out his Eastern project. In Europe, it included all the continent except Russia, Northern and Western Germany, and Scandinavia.

For the most part, the interest of this period clusters about a few names, and in the careers of Cato,

the Gracchi, Marius, Sulla, Cataline, Cicero, Pompey and Cæsar, may be read the progress of Rome towards its manifest destiny. A great deal of interest centers in Cato the Censor. His figure is sharply defined in historical outline, and he stands out upon the page of Time, the very ideal of austerity. The Roman virtues he exemplified to perfection. He was incorruptible. Penurious to the last degree, nothing could induce him to acquire wealth illegally, or contrary to his views of honor. Carthage in ruins was his monument. He was a patrician who looked upon the enlargement of citizenship, and the outgrowth of provincialisms, as degeneracy. He failed to see in that enlargement the necessary condition of imperial growth. He was a chronic grumbler. As events swept on in an ever-widening stream, he stood upon the shore and railed. He was greatly esteemed, and it was quite the fashion to admire his Romanesque virtues, but he can hardly be said to have exerted much real influence. The stream would not reverse its course and flow up hill to please even Cato the Censor. When he died the last link was broken between Rome the Insignificant and Rome the Magnificent. There were two Catos, the younger being a cotemporary of Cæsar, one standing at the beginning, the other at the end of the period under consideration. They are so similar in character, that one suspects the younger must have sat for the picture painted of the elder. The younger Cato was a prolific writer on agriculture and other "topics of the times." He died at last by his own hand, unwilling to survive the ascendancy of Julius Cæsar, whom he looked upon as a demoralized and demoralizing demagogue.

Cato the Younger.

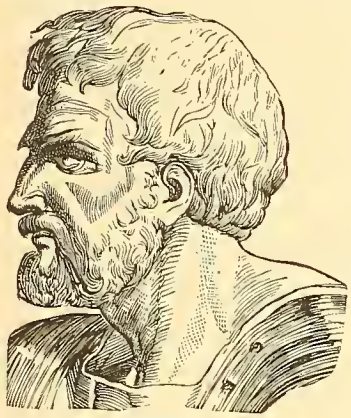
There were two Gracchi of note, Tiberius and Caius. "The mother of the Gracchi" is a prominent figure in Roman records. It is of her that it is reported, that when the matrons of Rome were summoned to appear in public with their jewels, she came simply dressed. Being reproved for disregarding the order, she pointed to her sons, saying, "These are my jewels." Later, Rome loved to hold her up as the model matron, a worthy companion-in-honor of the chaste Lucretia and Virginia. The name of this greatly venerated matron was Cornelia. Tiberius renewed the agrarian agitation, carrying it much farther than it had been carried before, and his brother continued the agitation. Alarmed at the growing depopulation of Italy, he conceived the project of raising the condition of the Roman commonalty. He was the son of a Consul, and his mother, Cornelia, was the daughter of the Elder Scipio Africanus. Plebeian yet noble was the blood in his veins. He espoused the cause of the oppressed and the impoverished. He was the O'Connell and Parnell of his day. The aristocracy took alarm, and spared no effort to thwart his laudable purpose. He was irrepressible, and no allurements of office could turn him aside. He tried to revive the Licinian law, and made progress, being elected a Tribune. His term of office expired before his work was completed, and he insisted upon re-election, which would have been illegal, as the constitutional lawyers of the day claimed. A riot occurred, and Tiberius was slain. That was in B. C. 133. A few years later his brother Caius took up the cause of the landless against the landlords, and he too was slain.

Tiberius Gracchus.

The nobles seemed to be all-powerful. The rich became immensely more wealthy, and the poor sank into hopeless poverty. Henceforth there was a vast body of the people dependent upon the spoils and largess which the conquests of the period provided on a liberal scale. With the failure of the Gracchi Rome lost forever the opportunity to escape from the constant menace of a mob, and the very triumph of the aristocratic senate paved the way for the ultimate subjugation of that body to the behests of an emperor. That victory was a century-plant which flowered in the subversion of the Republic and the establishment of the Empire.

Caius Marius, one of the greatest names in the military annals of Rome, was a Volscian. He began life a farm-laborer. By his courage and genius he rose to eminence as a soldier, and then aspired to

a political preferment. He was a successful politician, aided largely by alliance with the illustrious family of the Cæsars, one of the first families in the state, long before Julius made the name immortal—and typical of imperialism. In Africa he distinguished himself not only at Zama, but by the conquest of that troublesome enemy, the Numidian Jugurtha, whose wars have been preserved to mankind by the pen of Sallust.



Marius.

His lieutenant in the latter war was Cornelius Sulla. He did great things for Rome in Africa. He returned the hero of a glorious campaign, and seven times the consular power and honor was awarded him. In the Northwest he strengthened and enlarged the Roman Empire, and was the idol of the people. The Cimbri made a desperate attempt to break the magic spell of Rome. Marius saved his country. But his star finally waned. Sulla belonged to a younger generation, and succeeded in supplanting the veteran. In their day, the Italian nationalities, still cherishing jealousy of Roman supremacy, rose in rebellion. The Social or Marsic war was a very formidable uprising, and for its suppression Sulla won the highest credit. When that struggle was over and the republic needed a general to put down insurgents in Asia, and enlarge the empire eastward, he was chosen for the position, to the chagrin and discomfit of Marius. The latter was about seventy and the former twenty-one years younger. They were very different types of men. Marius was a rough and unlettered barbarian; Sulla was in education a Greek.

Cornelius Sulla.

There had arisen "a mighty man of war" in Asia, Mithridates, and when Sulla had departed for his overthrow, Marius set about organizing the Italians into a political party, and had himself appointed to the Eastern command. Sulla had not left the country, and promptly returning, entered Rome as a conqueror. Marius was not prepared for this emergency, and was obliged to seek safety in flight. He fled to Africa. A warrant for his arrest was issued. The officers dogged his steps, and it is reported that when they found him, they were so awed by his presence and name that they shrank from arresting him. When they asked him what answer he had to make to the summons, he replied, "Tell the Roman Senate you found Caius Marius sitting upon the ruins of Carthage." He had then been Consul six times. He finally returned, and raised an army to fight the blue-blooded aristocracy of the senate in the interest of the common people. He was successful, and for the seventh and last time was elected consul, with Caria as his colleague. He died during the year, the revolution which he aimed at, namely, the thorough enfranchisement of the Italians, incomplete; but his colleague was able to obliterate all remaining distinctions between Italians and Romans. To Marius, therefore, belongs the honor of vastly extending the area of the republic, and of unifying Italy under the Roman name and constitution.

Sulla had departed on his mission to the East, while Marius was a fugitive. He stormed and sacked Athens, and the Roman soldiers sent out by Marius to fight against Sulla had the good sense to join him in marching upon the common enemy. His career was a glorious one, from a military point of view, and he returned to Rome laden with military spoils. Marius was no more, but the Marian party was still powerful, and hostile to Sulla. His military prestige, and the spoils with which he could enrich his followers, made him master of the situation. He was not slow in taking advantage of his position. The opposition came out to meet him with an army, but his course was not seriously stayed, and he wrought his will.

It was about this time that the capital was burned (B. C. 83) and the Sibylline oracles perished with

it. The loss of state papers was certainly very great, and throws a cloud of uncertainty over all the historical records previous to this time. Henceforth minute documentary records were kept, on which subsequent history is supposed to rest.

Sulla, to return to our narrative, allied himself with the aristocracy. He was a born autocrat. The common people were odious to him. Besides, the popular party had been resolutely inimical to his claims as a military hero. After much civil war and political intrigue in desolating Italy, Etruscan civilization had not been obliterated, but he finished it. Out of his rivalry with Marius grew a desolating war upon Etruria not only, but on the Samnites, and when he sheathed his sword they were no more. In these latter days, some relics of that early civilization of Italy have been unearthed, just enough to attest the greatness of the destruction effected. Sulla was appointed Dictator. That was in B. C. 82. Proscription and massacre were the order of the day. Marius had thinned the ranks of the senate by his high-handed and bloody line of policy, and now came retaliation. Sulla determined to restore the reign of the oligarchy, and crush out the rising power of democracy. Some of his methods were peculiar. He enfranchised at one stroke ten thousand slaves, whose masters he had executed or driven into banishment. They were registered as members of the Cornelian clan, of which the Dictator was the head, and thus was his power consolidated, as he supposed. He divided public and confiscated private land among his legionaries on a liberal scale. He reconstructed the senate at his sovereign pleasure. When he had, as he thought, rendered secure the ascendancy of the oligarchy, he voluntarily abdicated and retired to his suburban estate to enjoy the luxuries of private life. He survived about twelve months, dying at the age of sixty. Between hard campaigning and unbridled debauchery, he was literally used up.

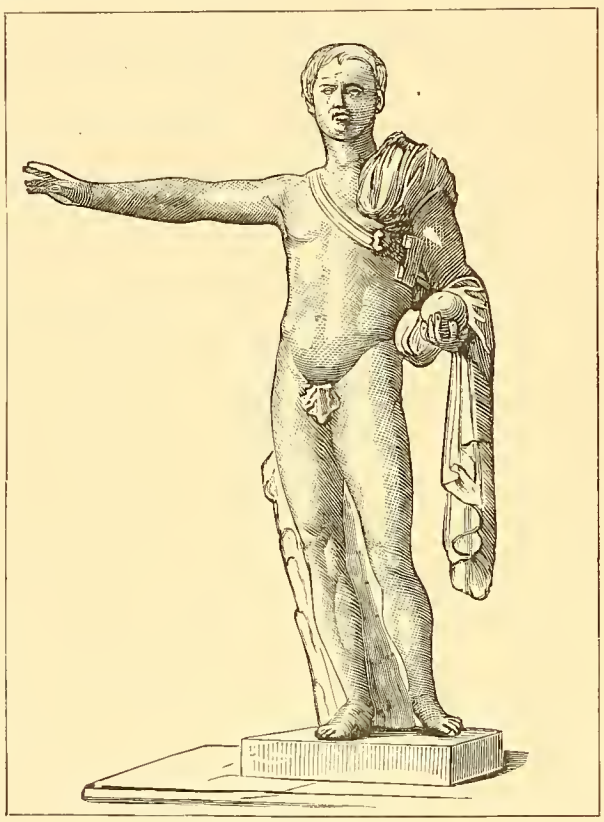
Sulla was a Bourbon, as we use that term in these days. Blind and deaf to the demands of national growth, he determined to restore the ancient landmarks, and compel the great empire to run politically in the same old grooves which were the ruts of Rome as an insignificant city, great only in its possibilities. He went to his grave, serenely confident that he had undone the gradual work of centuries, and especially the violent reform of the Marians. But it was all a mistake. Chaotic civil war soon broke out, and the state seemed threatened with suicide. Blood flowed freely, and the shadow of anarchy constantly hovered over the republic.

There was really no peace until the empire became imperial in government, as well as in area. But it took only ten years to undo what Sulla had done as Dictator. What he had done as Proconsul in the East, was the salvation of the empire. Mithridates, King of Parthia, was a great military genius, and came very near building up a vast kingdom in Asia; one which would have overshadowed and dwarfed Rome. The victory which Sulla won at Chærona, decided the day forever as between Rome and its last real rival. Henceforth, the Romans had only the rude barbarians of the Northwest to fear. The East was powerless. The civilized world had only one political capital, the really half-barbaric "Eternal City." This world-conquest may be said to have begun with the first Punic war, and ended with the stamping out of the great uprising in Greece, Asia Minor and the East generally, under the leadership of Mithridates. The subsequent wars in those quarters involved no real peril to Rome.

Among those who rose to some eminence under Sulla, as adherents to his political fortunes, was Cnæus Pompeius; and among those who suffered persecution for the cause of the people and progress, was Julius Cæsar. The former would have been a minor character in Roman history, had his career ended with the retirement of his chief, while the latter would have been wholly forgotten, but for subsequent events. Pompey was the first, after Sulla, to rise to an eminence entitling him to conspicuous notice. He was not a really great, or a bad man. He was a patriot of much more than the average virtue, and a trifle more than the average ability. His great achievement was the suppression of piracy. Rome had become the center of commerce, simply because it had the power to compel all commercial peoples to pay tribute. To secure the largesses of corn and wine, and all precious or useful merchandise, it was necessary to have immunity from the pirates who infested the Mediterranean. They had become very formidable and impudent. They had no idea of being suppressed, but Rome set about the task. B. C. 67.

and was entirely successful. Pompey's commission was virtually the absolute sovereignty of that sea for three years, together with its coast for fifty miles around, which in many cases was about as far inland as actual Roman authority penetrated. It was a right royal commission. The authority was not abused.

He was then appointed governor of the East, and did much to consolidate and perfect the empire. Syria and Phœnicia yielded unconditionally to his sway. Now, for the first time, Jewish and Roman history begin to have points in common. It was sixty years before Christ that he laid siege to Jerusalem and took it. It was not destruction, but subjugation, which he sought and obtained. His exploits won him great popularity at Rome. His next field of glory was Spain, where he was invested with supreme authority.

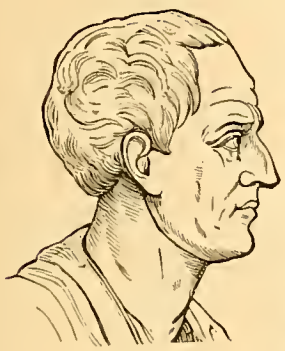


Colossal Statue of Pompey, Rome.

Pompey's glory was his weakness. He was a member of the conservative party, and its leader, without being fully equal to the tasks involved. In the meanwhile, Julius Cæsar had developed into the leader of the opposition, and he was a man of commanding genius. Without going now into the general career of this greatest of all Romans, it may be well to dispose of his relations to Pompey. Generally hostile, they were sometimes friends and coworkers. At one time they were knit together by ties of marriage. In those days of easy divorces, matrimonial alliances for political reasons were not uncommon. But on the principle of "natural selection" the two men were not adapted to a "coparceny." Cæsar was a thorough Marian. Pompey, without being a consistent party man, was, on the whole, a Bourbon of the Sullan school. Then each would naturally be somewhat jealous of the other. Cæsar seems to have been spared any very intense jealousy by his consciousness of superiority, and for a long time Pompey was spared it by the possession of inordinate self-conceit. But finally, all makeshifts and devices of compromise being exhausted, each recognized in the other an implacable enemy, and they came to sustain to each other much the relation Carthage and Rome had sustained. One or the other must perish. Civil war was inevitable, and culminated in the battle of Pharsalia, fought in June, B. C. 48. Both armies were large and well-officered. It was a complete victory for Cæsar. The vanquished warrior fled with a small remnant of the army, and in his flight he was assassinated by false friends. At the age of fifty-eight he fell, the hero of three triumphs over the three continents. Long the foremost man of Rome, Pompey fell while seeking asylum in Egypt, where he had hoped to recruit his forces and make one more stand against the inevitable.

Between the glory of Pompey and the eclipsing splendor of Cæsar, there intervened the conspiracy of Cataline, an episode of the republic rendered immortal by Cicero. Cataline was a spoilt child of fortune. Noble in blood and great in intellect, he was ignoble in spirit and unscrupulous in the use of means. He aspired to the consulship. Failing to reach the goal by fair means, he conceived the desperate purpose of raising a conspiracy. It was an age of blood and horrors, and that Aaron Burr of Rome resolved to achieve command by arming the lowest and most desperate class of citizens. His

plot was disclosed, and Cicero, then the foremost orator at the Roman bar and in the senate, undertook to thwart him by prosecution for treason. The orations he delivered are preserved, and rank second only to the Philippics of Demosthenes. The great orator secured the banishment of the conspirator, and was hailed as the savior of his country: and so perhaps he was. Cicero was a most accomplished man in every way. He was the ripest fruit of civilization produced by the Roman republic. His weakness was vanity, and as a man of public affairs he was not the equal of Cæsar, but in scholarship and superb statesmanship he was unrivaled. His is one of the most august figures in all history. A philosopher and a statesman, he contributed more to the literature of his country than to its political destiny, while yet pre-eminent in affairs of state. The consulship was attained by him. He was not a strong partisan, nor was he a thoroughly great politician in any point of view. His powers were a little to odiversified to admit of the very highest achievments. He sought to preserve the good in old forms and ideas, while appreciating the advantages of progress. He seemed somewhat vacillating, but it was the vacillation of intellectual breadth rather than cowardice. He enjoyed the popular favor, and escaped the perils of civil war until the great crisis of the state culminated in the assassination of Julius Cæsar, when not even a Cicero could maintain a neutral position. He fully identified himself with the party of Brutus, incapable though he was of actual participation in the assassination. When Cæsarism won the day and retribution came, Cicero was one of the victims. He was murdered by order of the victorious Octavius, B. C. 42. But his fame and his writing remain a vital part of the world, and will survive to all time.



Cicero.

Julius Cæsar belongs in part to the period of this chapter, and in part to the next. Although he never wore a crown, he justly stands as the typical emperor. Imperialism and Cæsarism are synonymous terms. Yet he was a democrat, in distinction from an aristocrat, and throughout his political career was the unvarying and indomitable foe of the aristocracy. His blood was noble, none more so, and he could have been the pet of the senatorial aristocrats. But following the fortunes of the Marian party, to which he was bound by family ties, he championed the cause of the populace. Cautious and far-seeing, he did not blurt out his plans, and spoil all by wearing his heart on his sleeve. He entered public life early, and yet was deliberate and prudent in pushing to the front. He took care not to call upon himself special animosity. By gradual steps he rose, until he was allowed a command in the far West. Up to this time he had not distinguished himself. Some narrow escapes are recorded of him in the days of Sulla, whose command to put away by divorce the wife of his youth, he grandly disobeyed. He was not a model husband by any means, and did divorce his wife afterwards from motives of policy. He was a spendthrift and debauchè.

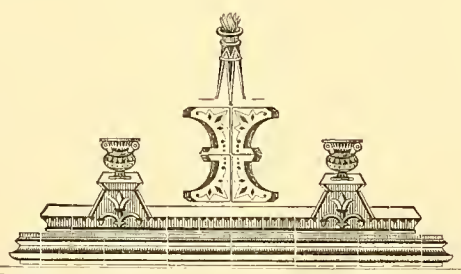
After distinguishing himself in Spain, he returned and was elected Consul, B. C. 59. That was something of a crisis in the republic, for the new Consul improved the time to secure many reforms, and to foreshadow quite clearly the aims of the democracy. It was evident that he would, if he could, put an end to the narrowness of the past. Rome, to his conception, was a nation, not a metropolis. This ever-present political issue, the constant quantity in Roman politics, was accepted in all its logic by Cæsar. It was not the plebeians against the patricians, Latium against the city, but the whole empire against the favored few of the capital. He became henceforth the recognized leader of the national party. His term of service over, he went to Gaul as Proconsul, and pushed the conquest of the West to Britain. By the artful employment of political agencies, he so far conciliated Pompey and his party, as to secure the extension of his military commission. He "stooped to conquer." Allowed a powerful army, he made such splendid use of his opportunities, that he laid Rome under very heavy obligation to him, and consolidated about him an army which could be relied upon to follow wherever he led. He was then able to take an aggressive and bold stand. The civil war with Pompey was incident to his plan, nothing more. His request to be allowed to come home and stand for another

consular election being denied by the senate, he boldly denied not only the authority of that body, but the very constitution of the republic. He was forbidden to advance nearer than the river Rubicon, but he crossed it, and in so doing set himself squarely against both the present edict and the law of traditional authority. That was the turning-point in his fortunes, and, as it proved, the death-blow of the republic. With wonderful celerity, he passed from place to place, quelling the rising storm of opposition. Everywhere the conservatives were aroused, and nothing save the incomparable genius of Cæsar prevented a crushing combination against him. From Rome he went to Spain, then back again to meet the forces of Pompey. No sooner had he won the battle of Pharsalia than he was off for Egypt, and put down the party whose cause Pompey had espoused. A mutiny in his own army was soon put down, and swiftly followed by the utter overthrow of the Pompeian party, which made its last stand in Africa. We next find him in Spain again. By that time he was ready to come back to Rome and enter upon the actual exercise (one can hardly say enjoyment) of his authority. He was now master of Rome and all its tributaries. The empire, politically speaking, dates from his election as Dictator for life, when he had reached a position from which only death could dislodge him. We cannot better close this chapter than by citing, without endorsing, the now famous concluding passage in Froude's Cæsar:

"The spirit which confined government to its simplest duties, while it left opinion unfettered, was especially present in Julius Cæsar himself. From cant of all kinds he was totally free. He was a friend of the people, but he indulged in no enthusiasm for liberty. He never dilated on the beauties of virtue, or complimented, as Cicero did, a Providence in which he did not believe. He was too sincere to stoop to unreality. He held to the facts of this life and to his own convictions; and as he found no reason for supposing that there was a life beyond the grave, he did not pretend to expect it. He respected the religion of the Roman State as an institution established by the laws. He encouraged or left unmolested the creeds and practices of the uncounted sects or tribes who were gathered under the eagles. But his own writings contain nothing to indicate that he himself had any religious belief at all. He saw no evidence that the gods practically interfered in human affairs. He never pretended that Jupiter was on his side. He thanked his soldiers after a victory, but he did not order *Te Deums* to be sung for it; and in the absence of these conventionalisms he perhaps showed more real reverence than he could have displayed by the freest use of the formulas of pietism.

"He fought his battles to establish some tolerable degree of justice in the government of this world; and succeeded, though he was murdered for doing it.

"Strange and startling resemblance between the fate of the founder of the kingdom of this world and of the Founder of the Kingdom not of this world, for which the first was a preparation. Each was denounced for making himself a king. Each was maligned as the friend of publicans and sinners; each was betrayed by those whom he had loved and cared for; each was put to death; and Cæsar also was believed to have risen again and ascended into heaven and become a divine being."



CÆSAR AND THE EMPIRE.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE REPUBLIC AND IMPERIALISM—CÆSAR AND THE CALENDAR—HIS MOTTO IN LIFE—TESTIMONY OF FROUDE—SENATORIAL REFORM—AGE OF SKEPTICISM—THE PROFFERED CROWN—THE ASSASSINATION PLOT—THE TRIUMVIRATE—CLEOPATRA THE BEAUTIFUL—AUGUSTUS AND HIS POLICY—THE EMPIRE AND THE SENATE—POPULARITY OF THE EMPEROR AUGUSTUS—MERIVALE ON THE EMPIRE—THE AUGUSTAN AGE.

IT was in the year B. C. 46 that Cæsar was named Dictator for ten years, with the right to nominate the persons whom the people were to choose for their Consuls and Prætors. In less than two years his bloody corse lay at the foot of Pompey's pillar in the senate chamber. During that short space of time was wrought a mighty work of reconstruction, and the foundations of imperialism were laid so securely, that nothing but the corrosions of time could destroy them, and even then destruction was not complete. Republicanism was not democracy. The form of self government was maintained without conferring the substance of liberty.

Julius Cæsar.

Under the plea of popular rights was inaugurated the Empire. The term "emperor" (imperator) was unknown then, and was not assumed by the first of the Cæsars; but the reality of absolutism was enjoyed by Julius Cæsar more fully than by any of his successors. They all refrained from assuming the kingly name, and kept up some show of popular government. In the course of time Emperor became a more imposing title than King, but originally the idea of monarchy was not suggested by it, or even by the really more sovereign title of Dictator. Cæsar was absolute master because the people so elected, and the right of hereditary succession was not an integral part of primitive imperialism.

The work of reform was commenced at once. The courts were purified and political rings broken up. The standard of public morality had sunk to a pitiful depth of degradation during the perturbed century now closed. Cæsar was no purist, but he appreciated the necessity of a higher tone of public sentiment. He early set about reforming the calendar. Cicero sneered at him, and so did the other learned men of the times. They were skilled in the wisdom of Greece, but unversed in that of Egypt. Cæsar had been in Alexandria, and his quick perceptions saw the advantage of a scientific division and measurement of time. He adopted substantially the Egyptian system, previously explained. Our Julian calendar, leap year

and all, still stands, and the first day of January has been New Year's day ever since B. C. 45.

For fourteen years Cæsar had known no rest, and he was now fifty-five years old, but he abated none of his industry. His was a nature which could not find repose in life. "If you want a thing well done, do it yourself" was his characteristic motto. The confused state of the government demanded his constant attention in affairs of peace, but he was soon obliged to set out for Spain to put down the last remnant of the conservative party in its open hostility. He took with him his sister's son (he had no child of his own) Octavius, afterwards Augustus, then a lad of eighteen years. This boy he adopted, and to him he evidently looked for a successor. No doubt the youth learned much during that campaign which was of incalculable advantage to him as emperor. In the spring of 45, the very last battle of that civil war was fought in Spain, near Gibraltar. It completed the defeat of the party which had been effectually crushed in point of fact at Pharsalia. "The free constitution of the republic," says Froude, "had issued at last in elections which were a mockery of representations, in courts of law which were an insult to justice, and in the conversion of the empire into the feeding-grounds of a gluttonous aristocracy." This is the language of an imperialist, still it is not an exaggeration. The battle of Munda was fought in March, and it was not until late in the following autumn that the Dictator set out on his return to Rome. His first care was to disarm opposition by clemency. He tried by that means to placate the implacable aristocracy.

He filled the senatorial vacancies, and raised the number of that body to nine hundred. Among the senators were some Gauls, and even some emancipated slaves. The high-born patricians were insufferably indignant. He tried to check the effeminacy of the times, and stringent sumptuary laws were passed. A commission was appointed to digest the laws, judicial and statutory, and great effort was made to make Rome a scientific center. He formed large engineering plans for draining the Pontine marshes, and similar enterprises. His architectural plans were on a magnificent scale. Nothing, in fact, seemed to escape his attention in the shape of secular improvement. It was an age of universal skepticism. Cæsar himself had held the office of high priest, but was a disbeliever in all religious tenets, including the doctrine of immortality. Classic myths were as mythical to him as to us of to-day, and the intelligence of mankind shared his agnosticism, except as there was a sect of Jews who were somewhat learned and held to the doctrine of a future life. Old forms of worship and systems of religion were maintained only for secular reasons, being interwoven with the political structure of society and deemed useful for purposes of state.

But the crisis was near. On the fifteenth of February, the day of the Lupercalia (a feast in honor of Pan, who was supposed, in a literal sense, to "keep the wolf from the door") Mark Antony, henceforth a noted name, but hitherto subordinate, offered Cæsar the crown. Antony was one of the Consuls. A faint applause was heard. Open disapproval might have been dangerous. It was evident that the Romans were not at all kindly disposed toward a return to royalty. The traditions of the Tarquins were too deeply graven in their thoughts. The offer was gently put aside, and upon its repetition Cæsar was heard to say, "I am not king. The only king of Rome is Jupiter." The boldness and persistence of the offer and the feebleness of the refusal, confirmed the suspicions of the senatorial oligarchy that Cæsar really cherished kingly ambition and would not be content to remain Imperator. It was clear that the only way to dispose of him was by assassination. That expedient was resolved upon.

Marcus Brutus.

Once more a Brutus was found to undertake the cause of republicanism. This later Brutus was supposed by some to be the natural son of Cæsar, but however that may be, they were close friends. It was at first doubtful if he would lend his name and person to the plot, but he finally did. The conspirators kept their secret well; albeit some rumors of the impending catastrophe were noised abroad, yet Cæsar continued to perform his official duties at the senate without special precautions. At length the fifteenth of March, the day agreed upon

for the assassination, came, and the Imperator appearing as usual in the Capitol, the conspirators surrounded him, and the bloody work was finished before his friends could rally. Many romantic details, evidently the invention of later imaginations, are told illustrative of the tragic interest which will ever cluster about that most memorable of all assassinations. It has been worthily dramatized by the genius of Shakspeare, and one is tempted to pause over the tragedy. The really historical interest does not center in the taking off itself, but in what led to it and resulted from it; and Cicero was right when he remarked, "The tyrant is dead; tyranny remains." The imperial party having lost its leader, another bloody civil war ensued, but out of it all the empire emerged territorially and politically intact.

At first Antony, Lepidus, master of horse, and Octavius, Cæsar's nephew and heir, were stunned, but they soon rallied and roused the popular indignation, for Cæsar was a name to conjure with. Cicero apologized for and lauded the assassination, while Brutus and Cassius rallied an army in defense. A bitter and desperate struggle ensued. It was a comparatively easy task to punish the assassins, but the three avengers then fell out. Lepidus was first disposed of, and Antony and Octavius waged fierce warfare. In the meanwhile, the former had settled himself luxuriously if not comfortably at Alexandria, giving himself up to the society of Cleopatra, the queen of Egypt, whose beauty and dalliance have made her name familiar to all. That was no time for voluptuousness. Antony might have won the imperial prize by strict attention to business, but he frittered away his opportunity, and no eleventh-hour rally could save him. He perished, and with him the beauteous queen. With her fell the dynasty of the Ptolemies. Its position was precarious before, and now the last spark of real royalty expired. Cleopatra was designed by Octavius to grace his triumphal return to the capital, but she baffled him by applying the fatal asp to her breast. That sweet revenge was denied him, but he was none the less master of the situation. His uncle, under somewhat similar circumstances, had been very lenient to his enemies. Augustus, as he now called himself, resolved to avoid that peril. He put to the sword all whom he thought could stand between him and security on the imperial throne. He seemed to be the very ideal of monstrous cruelty, so relentlessly did he carry out this policy, but having once made an end of his enemies, he bid a long farewell to slaughter, and inaugurated a period of tranquillity.

Octavius.

Marcus Antonius.

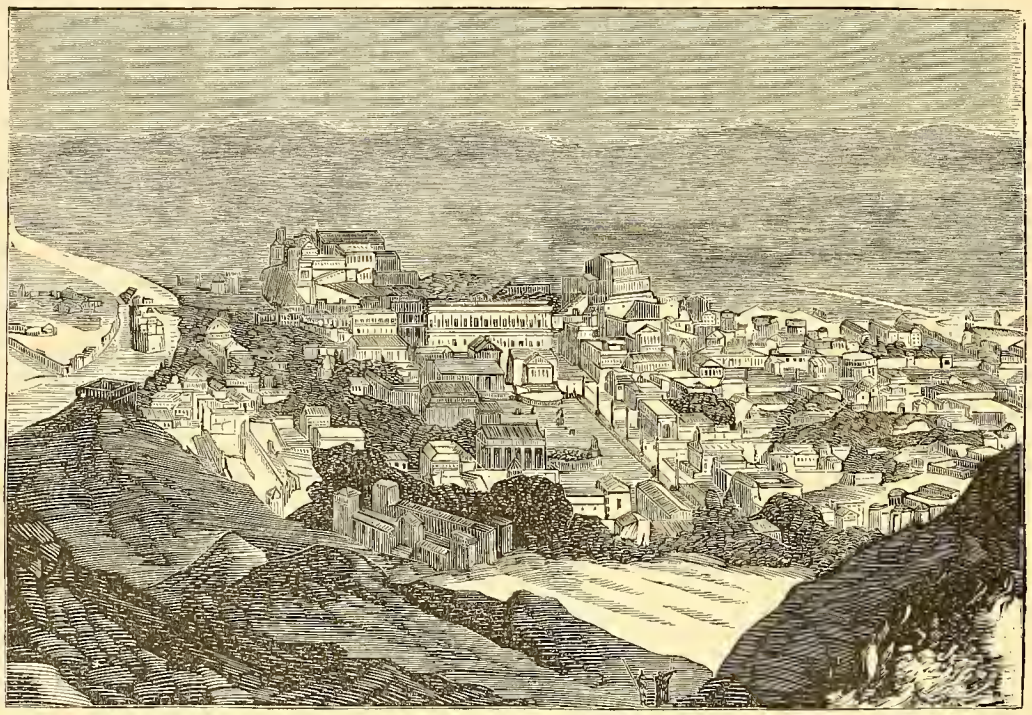
Bust of Cleopatra at Deuderah.

The reign of Augustus Cæsar, which was in effect a continuation of the Imperatorship of Julius Cæsar, covered a period of forty years, namely from B. C. 29, when he returned to Rome to enjoy his triple triumph, his last enemy, Antony, having been crushed under his feet, until near the close of A. D. 14, when he tranquilly fell asleep in death. From the battle of Actium, in which the Antonian army was routed, the empire had been at rest. No internal dissension disturbed the repose of the civilized world. Such a profound and universal cessation of hostilities had never been known, and has not been enjoyed since. "The empire means peace." It is curious that this reign of peace rested not only upon carnage, but upon military rule. Augustus owed his ascendancy in its continuance to the standing army. He was not only *Princeps* of the senate,—a strictly republican and civil title,—but also Consul and Proconsul, being Imperator for life. The senate was reorganized by him, and lost forever its independence and importance. Henceforth it was hardly more than the British house of lords, retaining the semblance of authority without the reality. The powers of the Tribunate were also absorbed into the imperial office. As sovereign pontiff or high priest, he assumed what there was left of

ecclesiastical jurisdiction. It was not much, but something. He was no advocate of skepticism, and certainly no admirer of philosophy. He contemned the speculations of metaphysics, and did what he could to restore the old faith. Indeed, he was eminently conservative. Having won all the honors and powers he could covet, he set about allaying the animosities of the old *regime* by conspicuous respect for the traditional prejudices of the citizens.

Perhaps Cæsar's ghost with the ugly stabs of the conspirators, was an ever-potent argument against persistent radicalism. He may have felt that his personal safety required him to conciliate the favor of the conservative element, so far as that could be done without the surrender of imperial ambition. He loved the reality of power without its pomp. He lived plainly, dressed in "homespun," walked the streets, nodding and chatting pleasantly with his acquaintances, obeying subpœnas to appear as a witness in court, and in every way of that kind concealing the crown he wore. Like Romulus, Camillus, Cicero and Julius, he was hailed as the father of his country, and professed to be abundantly satisfied with the honor thus conferred, but he took care that the actual authority exercised should be such that ever since his day, Emperor has been the proudest and most royal title possible among men.

Hitherto the Empire of Rome has had no certain boundaries, and no organic adjustment. Proconsuls and Prætors have been assigned to duties in an irregular and jerky way. Augustus systematized the government and districted the state. Italy, from the Alps to the Straits of Messina, was divided into eleven districts, all under the control of the Prætor in the city. The rest of the empire was divided into senatorial or imperial provinces, according as the governors were accountable to the senate or the Emperor. The entire standing army was not far from three hundred and fifty thousand, not including the naval force, which was very considerable, and the first ever maintained by the Romans. Speaking of the taxes levied at this time, an eminent historian says: "The sources of public revenue were indeed numerous and varied. The public domain reserved in ancient times to the state after each successive contest, had now been gener-



ROME IN THE TIME OF AUGUSTAS CÆSAR.

ally divided among the citizens, or remitted to their subjects; the tribute or land tax, originally imposed upon citizens and subjects alike, had been remitted to the soil of Italy since the conquest of Macedonia, but this contribution was still levied throughout the provinces, in money or in kind, and the capitation tax pressed alike upon every inhabitant of the Roman dominions. Mines and quarries, fisheries and salt works, were generally public property farmed for the state. Tolls and customs were exacted on every road and in every city, and most of the objects of personal property, both dead and live stock, including slaves, paid a duty in proportion to their value. Augustus imposed a rate of one-twentieth on legacies, but this mild experiment in direct taxation caused considerable murmurs. The great corn-growing countries of Egypt and Africa made a special contribution of grain for the supply of Rome and Italy. The largesses, both of victuals and money, to the people, which had been an occasional boon from the early times of the republic, were henceforth conferred regularly and systematically, and there was no more fatal error in the policy of the empire (though it was neither invented by the emperors nor could they relieve themselves from it) than the taxation of industry in the provinces to maintain idle arrogance at home."

The population of the city of Rome is supposed to have been about 700,000; that of the empire as a whole, not less than 100,000,000. The capital was enriched by many temples and other public buildings, and other cities like Alexandria and Antioch, rivals of Rome in population and general civilization, seemed to bask in imperial smiles. The Emperor made an extended Eastern tour, not as a conqueror, but as the friend and benefactor of his subjects and fellow citizens, for he carefully maintained the appellation of citizen, and the franchises which it implied were enjoyed by many of the people in all parts of the empire. At one time he undertook in person an expedition to quell an insurrection in a remote Western province (for profound as was the peace of Rome, barbaric eruptions of a trivial nature were not wholly wanting), and the eagles of Rome took a somewhat widening circle in their flight westward. He left the empire enlarged a little, and consolidated so thoroughly that it rested on a basis so solid that it seemed for centuries to be eternal. It has been remarked, that of the city of Rome Augustus could say, "I found it brick and left it marble." Of the empire, surely it might be said that he found it bricks and left it an arch. The loose material was cemented into a grand and enduring structure on which the government of the world for centuries could securely rest.

The details of this reign were uneventful, and in following the empire in its course from this time on we shall not find very much of actual importance. Rome has now acquired its distinctive type and character. Before following the long line of emperors it may be best to pause and consider Latin literature, for the best part of it belongs to the Augustan age.

LATIN CLASSICS.

CHAPTER XXVII.

PRECLASSIC LITERATURE—MACAULAY AND PRIMITIVE LATIN—THREE PERIODS—THE GOLDEN AGE—VIRGIL—HORACE—LUCRETIUS—OVID—THE POETS OF THE SILVER AGE—CICERO AND LATIN PROSE—THE HISTORIANS OF ROME: SALLUST, CÆSAR, LIVY, AND TACITUS—THE PLINYS—QUINTILIAN—LATIN JURISPRUDENCE.

THERE is most unmistakable proof that the Romans, like the Greeks and many other peoples, had their early ballads. Every country which can boast much curiosity and intelligence, with little if any reading or writing, has had a wealth of such creations of mingled history and fancy, of fable and fact, woven into popular songs. But that primitive Latin literature almost wholly perished long before the present Latin literature had its birth. What is known as the history of the kings and early consuls of Rome is mainly ficticious. More than three hundred years after the date ordinarily assigned for the foundation of the city, the public records were destroyed by the Gauls, and it was at least a century and a half later, before the annals of the commonwealth were compiled.

Speaking on the subject in hand, Macaulay says in one of his essays, "The Latin literature which has come down to us is of later date than the commencement of the second Punic war, and consists almost exclusively of words fashioned on Greek models. The Latin metres—heroic, elegiac, lyric, and dramatic—are of Greek origin. The best Latin epic poetry is the feeble echo of the Iliad and Odyssey. The best Latin ecologues are imitations of Theocritus. The plan of the most finished didactic poem in the Latin tongue was taken from Hesiod. The Latin tragedies are bad copies of the masterpieces of Sophocles and Euripides. The Latin comedies are free translations from Demophilus, Mereander and Apollodorus. The Latin philosophy was borrowed without alteration from the Portico and the Academy; and the great Latin orators constantly proposed to themselves as patterns, the speeches of Demosthenes and Lysias." There is, therefore, nothing original, strictly speaking, in the extant writings of the Latin classics, and the very name of any absolutely original author has perished. The later writers, whose works have perished, were imitators, and probably poor at that. The fair inference from fragments is, that the best of the literature has survived. Without enumerating the lost books, we will give some idea of the present body of Latin classics. It is only where a language and a literature is original and germinal, like the Greek, that its very fragments and traditions are valuable.

Latin literature may be said to have had three periods. The first contains many lost works and

two names worthy of record, Plautus and Terence. Both were writers of comedies, not the grand and powerful works of Aristophanes and Shakspeare, but the light, half farcical conceits of the present "play of the period." They have all the vices of the Greek and some of the excellences. We have twenty of the comedies of Plautus. They are low and morbid, generally devoted to the intrigues of illicit love. They were very popular for at least five centuries. He was a native of Italy, but not of Rome, and was born B. C. 210. Terence was eighteen years younger and a native of Carthage. He was a slave, as was Epictetus, the great ethical writer of later Rome. He modeled his works after the Greek patterns. He left six plays, which are much read by scholars, and studied by playwrights of classical education. He had great power of character delineation. He is credited with having given to the Latin language its highest perfection in point of elegance and art. He was more refined than Plautus. The latter wrote for the stage as patronized by a coarse people; the former wrote for a more refined taste.

Passing over the somewhat long list of lost mediocrity, we come to the Golden Age, for what remains belongs either to that period or the Silver Age, a distinction fully justified by the poetry of the two ages, but not by the prose. The poets of the Golden age are Ovid, Virgil, Horace and Lucretius; of the Silver Age, Phædrus, Juvenal, Lucan, Statius and Martial. The prose writers of the former age are Cicero, Nepos, Cæsar, Sallust and Livy; of the latter age, Tacitus, Suetonius, Seneca, Pliny, Quintilian, Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius. The two latter names are sometimes omitted, but they belong here. The first was a slave and the second an emperor, and both were pure and lofty moralists. Tacitus, Quintilian and Seneca are second only to Cicero, if indeed, not worthy to rank at his side.

The first name in Latin literature is that of Virgil. He was a man of rare genius and indefatigable industry. He wrote much and was unwearied in perfecting his lines. Born at Mantua in B. C. 70, he became a ripe scholar, a careful student of the Greek, also of medicine and mathematics. At the age of thirty he repaired to the capital. His education was received mainly at Naples, where his last years were spent. His disposition was of a retiring nature, loving the solitude of Nature and his library. His first work was the "Bucolics," a truly rural poem of considerable length. The "Georgics" and "Ecologues" came later and occupied his time for seven years. But his one really great production is the "Æneid," upon which the last ten years of his industrious life were spent. He lived to complete it, but so critical was his taste that he never ceased to polish the verse. Had his life-work closed without the latter epic, he would have ranked with Hesiod, only his superior by far. The Æneid gives him companionship with Homer, but a long distance beneath him. He is, therefore, a second and greater Hesiod, and second and lesser Homer. The subject of the Æneid is the settlement of the Trojans in Italy. In the "Iliad" Æneas is one of the minor heroes of Troy, and Virgil represents him as escaping with great difficulty from that city at the time of the great conflagration, leading a small colony of refugees to Italy. Their journey thither was an eventful one. The story of his stay at Carthage and the passion of Queen Dido, the device by which he escaped, and her tragic end, are familiar to those at all acquainted with classic legends. He catered to the national prejudice by representing the Queen of Carthage as jilted by the hero to whom it was pretended the descent of the Emperor Augustus could be traced. The story has no historical foundation beyond the probability that some fugitives from Troy may have found their way to Italy.

and formed part of the stock of the Roman people. The Æneid suggests in its earlier books the Odyssey, in the later, the Iliad. Some minor poems are attributed to him. They are not of a high order, and if written by him must have been the production of "vealy" youth.

Next to Virgil ranks Horace, the consummate master of the art of poetry. He loved ease, and wrote odes and epodes, satires and epistles which attest a mind of the highest culture, of lofty genius and sublime repose. He took the world as he found it, not over curious as to what went before or would come after. He saw in the theological teachings of his day a collection of myths, and cared no more for Jupiter and the Olympian deities than we of today do. As for a future life, it was the least of his troubles. He was not gross, but was "of the earth earthy." In his life was seen the typical man of the world, the poet of a civilization which is content to follow the motto, "One world at a time." There was nothing of the controversialist in his disposition, nor had he any conception of any "mission" in life. It any one cared to accept the foolish fables of the priests or the ratiocinations of the philosophers, he had no objections. That was their business, not his. The son of an emancipated slave, he took no thought for to-morrow. Brilliant, amiable, respectable, jovial and fairly well-versed in the learning of the day, he could satirize without cauterizing; bestow praise without fulsome flattery; sound the lute in festivity without swinish licentiousness. His odes have never been excelled as odes, and it is hardly too much to say, that in his way he is above all competition. His language is force itself, his sentiments beautiful, and the melody of his versification charming. He has been called the Pindar of Rome, and it would be over praise for the great Greek lyrist, to call him the Horace of Athens.

Lucretius embraced the same agnostic (as it is now called) philosophy as Horace. He was an Epicurean, not in tastes and habits, like Horace, but he was a strenuous advocate of the theological, physical and moral system of Epicurus. His work on Nature is well worthy the high praise of Ovid when he says, "The sublime strains of Lucretius shall never perish until the day when the world shall be given up to destruction." He had the true fire of poetry. There is a grandeur and beauty in his verse, even when it is evident that his main anxiety is to make a strong argument for materialism. The latest philosophy, that which finds its highest presentation in Herbert Spencer, must ever recognize in Lucretius its poet laureate. Many things which he supports by suppositions and arguments which seem absurd, have been proven since his day to rest upon scientific ground. He was born in B. C. 95, and what Horace accepted as a matter of course, Lucretius fought for with the zeal of an Ingersoll. He was the stuff that martyrs were made of, but he was not, so far as known, ostracised or persecuted for his "blasphemy" of the popular gods, or his philosophical theories. He died in the prime of manhood, and before he had put the finishing touches on his immortal poem.

Ovid first saw the light on the very day that Cicero's star became obscured by the darkness of death. He had rank, talent and fortune. Like Horace and Lucretius, he was an agnostic, but he lacked the refinement of the one and the enthusiasm of the other. He sang of love in a morbid and unwholesome way. His "Metamorphoses" is almost an epic. It is a series of myths, some of them very beautiful, a few of them chaste. This was his best production beyond all question. For the most part, however, Ovid's poetry is elegiac. Much that he wrote is utterly unfit for perusal. It is vile without any excuse for it; and when the poet was banished for treason, although without any sufficient cause, and obliged to linger out life in vain supplications for pardon, it is hard to pity him. He wrote much, and in a literary point of view, most admirably.

The poets belonging to the Silver Age are not worthy of very extended notice. The fables of Phædrus made the Romans acquainted with Æsop. He was a translator and hardly more. Being the son of a Thracian slave, he may be supposed to have been familiar with them from childhood. Two of these Silver poets, Persius and Juvenal, rank as satirists. The former was born about thirty-four years before Christ, and the latter about forty years after. They were both stoical in their sympathies and tendencies. Lucan, who was a cotemporary of Juvenal, wrote some fine passages. They are mostly to be found in his Pharsalia, a work in which Cæsar and Pompey, Cato and Brutus, are held up to the admiration of hero-worshipers. Martial was a Spanish Roman. His native city in Spain was given full rights and privileges, which made him a

Roman before the law. He was the laureate, one might justly say, of the Emperors Titus and Domitian, the latter of whom made some literary pretentions, but without much reason. His Epigrams, twelve hundred in all, are essentially satirical compositions. They present a frightful picture of social demoralization.

We pass now to the prose literature of the Latin language. Here too we find an almost abject servility to Greek genius, and nothing at all approaching the highest Attic attainments. Cicero is the first name. All who went before him either perished or deserved no better fate. Cicero was a close student of the Greek models. Something less than Demosthenes in oratory, he had a far wider range of thought. He wrote much upon ethical subjects and was a Stoic in his professions. All his works abound in slurs upon the present life, and exhortations to exchange the known for the unknown. It is hard to reconcile his actual life of gorgeous luxury with a philosophy of self-denial and positive contempt of the world. Herein he occupies the same position as Seneca. Both were men of the most extravagant habits. They talked like Anchorites, and lived like Sybarites. They contributed nothing to the new ideas of the world. They elaborated the views of Zeno, and preached with tedious fullness a doctrine of self negation, sharply contrasting with their lives. Cicero was about two generations before Christ, and Seneca nearly that after him. They illustrate the hollowness of Roman stoicism. Seneca was nothing to the world except an ethical writer, but Cicero has left us orations of such grandeur that all subsequent orators owe a vast debt to him. He was a great statesman, a senator of whom any age or land might be proud. Profoundly learned and varied in his attainments, he was the Gladstone of his day, only instead of making Homer a specialty, he delighted in setting forth the beauties of an ideal life foreign to his own experience. Not that he was a very bad man. On the contrary, he was, for his times, an unusually good man. But by his mode of living, he gave the sneer to his theory of life. Epictetus, who was several centuries later, and Marcus Aurelius, who ruled the empire, discoursed in much the same way as Cicero and Seneca did about the vanity of life, and the uncertainty of living after death; but they seem to have been consistent and sincere. The orations of Cicero now extant are forty-nine in number, some of them incomplete, but all of them highly valuable. Of his rhetorical works, his dialogues on the Orator, and his essay on the Division of Oratory, are most esteemed. His style is supposed to be the very perfection of Latin prose. His numerous extant epistles are mainly valuable for the light which they throw upon the history of his times.

Lucretius. Seneca. Tacitus.

The first of the historians in point of time was Sallust, a Sabine, born in B. C. 85. A Plebeian by birth, he rose to eminence in politics, and secured the appointment of Governor of Numidia, where he accumulated a vast fortune, returning to Rome for its enjoyment. Surrounded by all the luxuries of ill-gotten gain, he wrote his history of the conspiracy of Cataline and of the war against Jugurtha, relieving the dryness of his narrative with moral reflections upon the degeneracy of the times. After him came Cornelius Nepos, a friend of Cicero, whose voluminous writings are all lost except his "Lives of Eminent Generals." He seems to have been a faithful chronicler. The most eminent of all Romans, Julius Cæsar, was a historian. His writings are history now, but they relate to events with which he had to do—"all of which I saw and part of which I was." His writings preserve to us a record of the wars he waged.

and describe the people he conquered. His style is simple, and his descriptive powers very great. Marvelous as was his genius for war and politics, he well deserves immortality as an author also. His "Commentaries" possess incalculable worth, apart from the glories of Cæsar in other fields of effort. Livy was a greater historian than even Cæsar or Sallust, and if second to Tacitus, he has been well called the prose Homer of Rome. Born in B. C. 59, at Padua, he found the empire established, and sought to preserve its history from its inception to its imperial perfection. He wrote one hundred and forty-two chapters, of which only thirty-five are now extant. The first ten which survive carry the history from the arrival of Æneas in Italy to the year B. C. 293, a few years prior to the war with Pyrrhus. There is, then, a loss of ten chapters, or books. The account recommences with the second Punic war, B. C. 218. What remains is mostly devoted to that second Punic war. He accepted myths and legends as veritable history. It must be conceded that his work is more valuable for presenting what the Romans supposed to be true of their ancestors, than for telling the actual truth, and in this respect he was much like Herodotus.

The greatest historian of antiquity, Greek or Roman, was Tacitus, born in A. D. 54. He had been Procurator of Belgic Gaul, and we are indebted to him for a great deal of information about the manners of the Germans in those days. Much that he wrote has been lost. A model of brief and philosophical biography, is his life of his father-in-law, Agricola. He was a master of terse and comprehensive expressions. Suetonius, some twenty years later, wrote a very interesting series of biographies, simple, precise, and correct. His subjects were the first twelve Cæsars, from Julius to Domitian.

Pliny is another familiar and illustrious name in Latin literature. There were two eminent men of the name. Pliny the Elder was a naturalist. His history of men and peoples was less remarkable that that unequaled monument of studious diligence and persevering industry, "Natural History." The work abounds in absurd stories. He was not so much a critical observer of nature as a painstaking collector of prevailing notions. He was a victim of the first eruption of Mt. Vesuvius. His nephew, Pliny the Younger, wrote "The Panegyric of the Trojan," and his books, or chapters of letters, are all valuable for their pictures of the manners and modes of thought of that period. He was born in A. D. 61. He had for a teacher in rhetoric the great Quintilian (also a Spanish Roman) who survived his pupil eight years, dying in Rome in A. D. 118, at the age of seventy. Quintilian's "Institutes of Oratory" is a complete treatise on the art of composition. He was a perfect master of the art which he taught, and his observations on style fairly entitle him to the supreme post of honor among the rhetoricians of all times and languages.

We cannot dismiss this subject without alluding to the one branch of literature which owes more to Rome than to Greece, and that is, law. It was in the appreciation of jurisprudence as a science, that the intellect of Rome showed its greatest originality. Servile in copying from Greece in most domains of pure reason, it marked out a path of its own in legal literature. It was not until a comparatively late date, the reign of Justinian, that the scattered parts were gathered into one digest; but the material itself was gradually accumulating in the form of legal opinions through centuries. By a process of growth almost imperceptible, the raw material of legal literature, as it exists to-day, was accumulated in the files of the Roman courts. There is nothing in the Latin literature of which the Romans might be so justly proud as the gradual accretions of legal lore in the Eternal City, which were finally digested and systematized as the Pandicts, a work prepared and promulgated by the order of the Emperor Justinian in the sixth century after Christ, but which in its essence and highest merits must be considered as the contribution of the Latin classics to legal literature.

THE EMPERORS FROM AUGUSTUS TO ALARIC.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE PATH OF EMPIRE—TIBERIUS CÆSAR—CALIGULA AND NERO—ROME IN THE DAYS OF NERO—THE SIEGE OF JERUSALEM—FROM VESPASIAN TO TRAJAN—HADRIAN—THE FORUM—MARCUS AURELIUS—THE AGE OF THE ANTONINES—ULPIAN THE LAWYER—DIOCLETIAN—CONSTANTINE AND CONSTANTINOPLE—JULIAN THE APOSTATE—WEAKNESS AND DISSENSION—THEODOSIUS AND THE PERMANENT DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE—GREEK AND ROMAN CHURCHES—LAST DAYS OF IMPERIAL ROME.

HAVING seen the nephew of the great Cæsar reap for himself the harvest of imperialism, enjoying the honors and prerogatives of absolute authority, as renewed by popular and senatorial delegation, from time to time until the public became accustomed to the one-man rule, we come now to trace the path of empire.

The Rome which would not follow out the suggestion of Mark Antony to crown the most illustrious Julius, has passed away, and a generation has come which accepted the mean and contemptible Tiberius as a matter of course. He was the successor, but not the son, of Augustus. Not one drop of the blood of the Cæsars coursed in his veins, being simply the son of the Empress by a former marriage. It was known that the senile Emperor had adopted him as his son (having none living of his own) and that was enough. Tiberius wore the imperial purple without having his right challenged. By virtue of the tribunician power with which he had been invested, he summoned the Senate at the death of Augustus, and his right to the office of Imperator was conceded. Augustus and Julius were both accorded divine honors, and henceforth the apotheosis of the dead emperors became a recognized institution of the state. Soon all disguises were thrown off, Tiberius accepting the homage as well as the subserviency of the senate and the people, all fear of another Brutus being dismissed. For twenty-three years he ruled the empire, a morose, bad man, without a single redeeming feature, bad at the start and constantly sinking deeper in the mire of infamy; making all about him unhappy, yet too feeble to seriously disturb the general thrift of the empire. Tiberius was succeeded by a scion of the proud Clodian family, Caius Cæsar, or Caligula, as he is usually called. He was a promising youth, and much was expected of him, but he proved even worse than Tiberius. Insanity seized him, and the monstrous freaks of his cruel craze made him an object of detestation. Wild and incredible stories are told of his madness.

Caligula.

But the general public hardly felt the weight of his despotic hand. His prodigality was prodigious, and his personal habits revolting. After five years of infamy he was assassinated, not like Cæsar, for political reasons, but in revenge for private wrong and insult. For a short time it looked as if the republic might be restored; but the reactionary party was distracted by dissensions, and soon Claudius, uncle of Caligula, a weak-minded old man, was raised to the throne. Hardly up to the standard of mediocrity, he yet had the merit of some common sense, and made a very good ruler, dying in A. D. 54. To him succeeded the son of his latest consort, Agripina. This son was the famous Nero, the pupil of Seneca; a young man of whom much good was expected, but who proved the proverbial type of tyranny. This emperor killed his own mother, and was accused of seting fire to Rome for the excitement of witnessing the conflagration. Under him began the persecution of the Christians. Having reigned wisely and moderately for five years, his character seemed to undergo a radical and detestable change, and at the age of thirty he died, having been on the throne fourteen years, during which time he succeeded in effectually obliterating all the honors he had won in the early years of his reign. Among the victims of his murderous malice was his tutor, Seneca. Such a life was fitly terminated by the hand of an assassin, his atrocities being unbearable by those within the circle of his immediate influence. That was in A. D. 68.

Claudius.

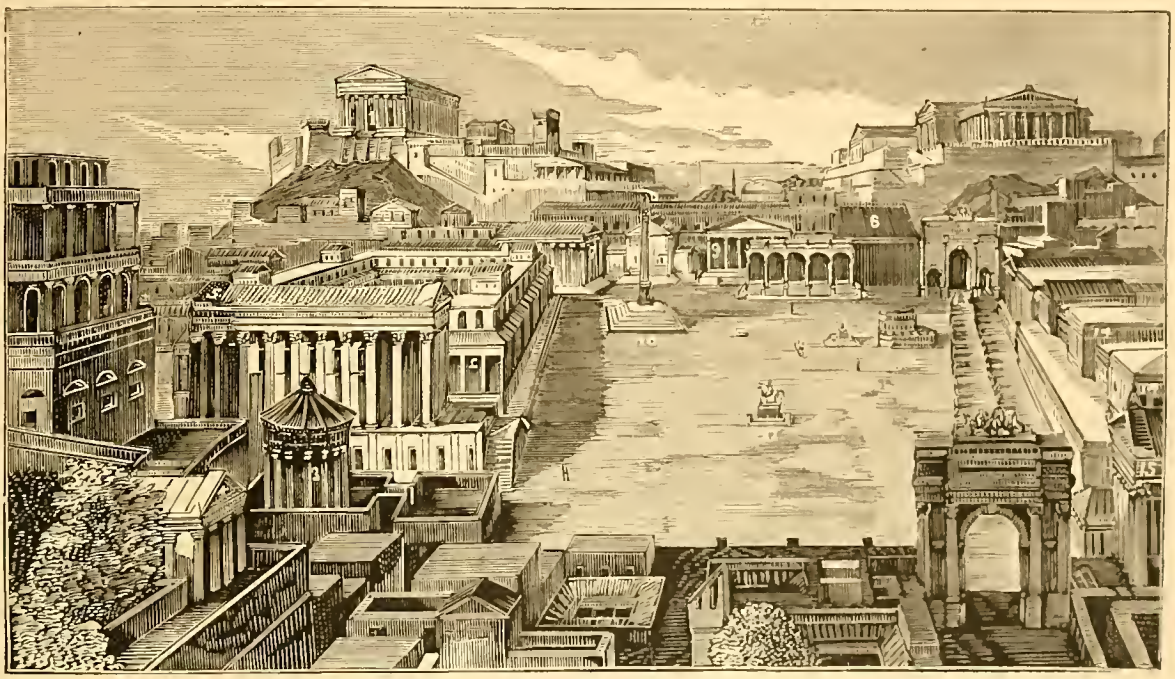
Nero.

Nero died childless, and a recent writer, in commenting upon the situation at that point, observes: "The stock of Julii refreshed in vain by grafts from the Octavii, the Claudii, and the Domitii, had been reduced to a single branch, and with Nero the adoptive race of the great Dictator was extinguished. The first of the Cæsars had married four times, the second thrice, the third twice, the fourth thrice also, the fifth six times, and the sixth thrice. Of these repeated unions a large number had borne offspring, yet no descendants of any had survived. A few had reached old age, many had reached maturity, some were cut off by early sickness, the end of others was premature and mysterious; but of the whole number a large proportion were undoubted victims of political jealousy. Such was the price paid by the usurper's family for their splendid inheritance; but the people accepted it in exchange for internal troubles and promiscuous bloodshed; and though many of the higher classes of citizens had become the victims of Cæsarian tyranny, yet order and prosperity had reigned generally throughout the empire; the world had enjoyed a breathing-time of a hundred years before the next outbreak of civil discord which is now to be related. 'The secret of the empire,' namely, that a prince could be created elsewhere than at Rome, was now fatally discovered, and from this time the succession of the Roman princes was most commonly effected by the distant legions, and seldom without violence and slaughter."

The first of these strictly military emperors was Galba, who was proclaimed Imperator by the army in Spain. He was somewhat parsimonious, and did not suit the prætorian guards, who caused his assassination. Otho succeeded him for a short time, when the legions of the Rhine insisted upon making Vitellius emperor, and the Syrian army named Vespasian. It looked as if anarchy had been inaugurated, and the end of the empire was near. But Vespasian succeeded in firmly establishing himself, and transmitting the crown to his son Titus. It was while the father was emperor, that the son laid siege to Jerusalem, and after a terrible resistance, effected its destruction. The hero-worship which had grown up and become a part of the very constitution of the empire was not seriously opposed by any except the Jews and the Christians. Monotheism saw in the deification of the dead emperors, not a form of loyalty to the government, but a horrible sacrilege. This made Jews and Christians, then hardly distinguishable, a "peculiar people" in

a very unfortunate sense, for they were constantly suspected of treason. The secular Romans, to whom all religion was an empty form, could not understand the conscientious scruples of these Monotheists. That was one of the most memorable sieges ever known. The heroic resistance of the beleagured city was sublime and awful. Confidently expecting deliverance from Jehovah, non-Christian Jews did not hesitate to seek shelter within the walls, while the Christians, as confidently looking for the second coming of Jesus, were bold in the defiance of temporal power. The dispersion of the one and the repeated persecution of the other followed, and that not simply from monsters of the Neronean type, but from emperors of good intentions, including Vespasian, Titus, and the Antonines.

The accession of Vespasian to the throne was the elevation of a thoroughly plebeian family, the Flavii, to the royalty. The founder of this dynasty had a long and honorable reign, his immediate successor a brief and no less honorable one, followed by the bloody Domitian, the second son of Vespasian, and the last of the Flavii. With all his faults and bigotry, Domitian was a beneficent ruler for the empire at large. When the dagger of a freedman laid him in the dust, the old senatorial party, so long in the background, reasserted itself, placing a venerable senator, Nerva, upon the throne. Little more than a year elapsed, when death claimed him, and a new period began.



ROMAN FORUM RESTORED.

1. Temple of Jupiter.
2. Basilica Julia.
3. Temple of Vesta.
4. Regia.
5. Temple of Castor and Pollux.
6. Tabularium.
7, 8, 9. Temples of Saturn, of Vespasian, of Concord.
10. Column of Phocas.
11. Statue of Domitian.
12. Rostra.
13. Arch of S. Severus.
14. Basilicæ.
15. Temple of Antonius and Faustina.

Trajan succeeded to the throne apparently because all recognized his conspicuous fitness for the grave duties of the imperial purple. His long reign was rendered glorious by the immense extension of the empire in every direction. There had been a gradual growth in area ever since the supremacy of Rome had become an established fact, but more especially under Trajan, who was succeeded by a relative, Hadrian. This noble em-

Trajan.

peror had more genius for government than any ruler since Julius Cæsar. Under him much was done to civilize the ruder portions of the empire; Hadrian being alike equal to military and civil emergencies. Toward the close of his reign, Hadrian chose as his associate (for it was the custom then and afterwards to choose an assistant emperor) T. Aurelius Antoninus, a man of mature age and most exemplary character.

The Forum at Rome corresponded with the Agora at Athens. It was an open space surrounded by public buildings, and devoted to business. It was at once a market-place and a court of justice. All kinds of transactions centered there. The climate admitted of such an open-air system. The Forum had to be enlarged several times to meet the demands of the public, but the cut given on the preceding page represents the Forum as it was when the empire was at its best. It may be added that as American towns frequently have squares around which business centers, so the Italian towns generally had their forums, sustaining substantially the same relation to them that the great Forum did to Rome.

At the death of Hadrian, to return to the emperors, Antoninus associated with himself in the government a near relative, known in history as Marcus Aurelius. "The ancient world," it has been truly remarked, "perhaps the modern world, has never enjoyed a period of more unbroken felicity, than that which glided tranquilly from Vespasian to Marcus Aurelius." This is called the "Age of the Antonines." Notwithstanding the persecutions of that age, and the wars necessary to maintain and extend the empire, the condition of mankind, as a whole, was eminently prosperous. It extended over a period of about one hundred years. The Antonines were philosophers in the very best sense of the term; broad-minded, high-souled and conscientious. The latest of them was a writer of ethical precepts, whose essays are still admired by all lovers of good morals. The Antonines did much to raise the public standard of right, and give an impetus to higher morality.

Marcus Aurelius.

With the death of Marcus Aurelius, A. D. 180, a new and calamitous era began. His son Commodus, was a vile wretch, early assassinated, and followed, at brief intervals, by several emperors of the Nero and Caligula type, whose names are not entitled to even the honor of mention. About the year 220, Alexander, better known as Severus, came to the throne. He was amiable and honorable if not great. He it was who placed at the head of affairs, in point of fact, Ulpian, a man pre-eminent in Roman jurisprudence. His rule of thirteen years was of incalculable benefit, not alone or mainly to the empire of his day, but to the science of law. Under the genius of Ulpian, justice became indeed a science, if such it had not become prior to that time.

Alexander Severus.

While engaged in a military expedition upon the Rhine, Severus was slain in a mutiny instituted by an officer named Maximus, a rude Thracian peasant, of superb physique. The soldiers were captivated by the personal prowess of this Thracian, and named him emperor. Then followed another series of swiftly rising and falling emperors, having no just claim to the sovereignty, and no fixed tenure of office. For fifty years the empire was on the verge of anarchy. During that time, the barbaric hordes, the Persians on the East and the Goths in the West, seriously menaced the very existence of the empire. But the hour of doom had not come. Diocletian was raised to the throne in A. D. 284, and his accession marked a new era in the empire, entering then upon what may be called its oriental phase. The very name of Consul ceased to be used. Having completed the degradation of the old ruling class at Rome, and succeeded in readjusting the empire on a strictly autocratic plan, he vol-

untarily abdicated, and spent the remaining years of his life in elegant retirement. His chief associate in power was Maximian, whom he compelled to abdicate also, leaving the government to Galerius in the East, and Constantius in the West. The former, Diocletian's favorite son-in-law, was allowed to name the associate of both himself and Constantius, and he chose for his own associate his nephew, Daza, and for Constantius one Flavius Servius. The real choice of Constantius was his own son Constantine of Christian memory. At that time Constantius was in Britain, and there he died not long after.

Diocletian.

The ambitious son boldly assumed the office of his father, having already won a brilliant record as a soldier, and evinced remarkable sagacity. Constantine did not press his claims at once, but was content to exercise the functions of a subordinate officer, busied with the administration of affairs in the extreme Northwest. Declared Emperor at York in A. D. 306, it was not until several years later that he openly asserted his claim. By that time Christianity had made tremendous strides, and had a vast number of converts. Constantine was totally devoid of religious scruples or convictions, but he had the wisdom to avow himself a champion of the Christian church. That rallied to his standard multitudes of enthusiastic supporters in all parts of the empire, especially in the East, where he was in most need of allies. His army had the enthusiasm of religious zealots, and they fought with a heroism which was irresistible. Several battles were necessary to the decision of the issue between the rival Cæsars. The last battle was fought at the Melvian bridge, only three miles from Rome. Constantine had already issued the Decree of Milan, giving imperial license for the first time, to Christianity, and avowing himself a believer in its doctrines. Entering Rome in triumph, he became, A. D. 312, the first Christian sovereign of the world. He had pretended to see while marching through Gaul a vision of the cross in the heavens, inscribed with the legend, "By this sign conquer." But the capture of Rome was not the subjugation of the entire Roman Empire by any means, and it was not until 323 that the great battle between paganism and Christianity was fought. Two mighty armies met, one under Constantine appealing to the Christian's God for succor, the other under Lucenius exhorted to remember that the gods of Olympus were many against only one, and he "the Prince of Peace." The defeat of the pagans was an utter rout and the shattered host sought refuge in the fortress of Byzantium, from which they were soon driven. At last the surrender was unconditional, and Constantine found himself sole emperor of the entire Roman Empire.

CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.

In personal character this man was utterly detestable, but he certainly had great genius, and in nothing did he show this more plainly than in transferring his capital from Rome to Byzantium, which he changed to Constantinople, and reconstructed upon a scale worthy the imperial center of the world. Like a second Romulus, "he builded better than he knew." He required the nobles to erect there lofty palaces. Gibbon says, in commenting upon this subject, "The city and senate of Rome remained as before, while those of Constantinople were endued with co-ordinate honor and authority, and enjoyed, moreover, all the advantage of the imperial presence. Two capitals could not, indeed, exist on equal terms within the same sphere. Rome sank immediately into a provincial metropolis, such as Alexandria, Antioch, or Treves; Constantinople became the mistress of the world and succeeded to

Rome's proudest title—the designation of 'The City.'

"The reign of Constantine lasted to the year 337, untroubled by civil dissensions, and prosperous in the conduct of affairs on every frontier of the empire. The historians commemorate the settlement of the finances on a new basis, which rendered them more elastic, and gave, perhaps, considerable relief to the reviving industry of the general populations. The interior, at least, of the provinces remained undisturbed by war. Letters revived; humanity extended her conquests." Constantine bequeathed

CONSTANTINOPLE.

his empire to his son Constantius. It was indeed Roman, but it had been thoroughly reconstructed, and the capital itself had been changed. The son was an absurd stickler for ceremony, and all the circumstances of royalty. He visited Rome, but affected indifference to its grandeur. The father had, in the fiendishness of his character, and with a Neronean ferocity, put to death nearly all of his own family. This favorite son had a brief and uneventful reign, followed by the accession of his cousin Julian, familiarly, but unjustly, known as the "Apostate." Julian had been educated a Christian, but upon arriving at the age of discretion, he preferred the old philosophy to the new religion. The endless and fierce doctrinal controversies in the church had disgusted him. Plato and Aristotle seemed grander to him than Arius and Athanasius. An enthusiast, he hoped to restore the old paganism, modified by philosophy, deeming it far preferable to Christianity, and striving earnestly to undo what his uncle had done, but to no purpose.

Perhaps Julian might have changed the whole current of European events, from a religious point of view, had he lived to old age; but he died early, and no Elisha took up his mantle. This Julius had no Octavius. He fell in battle with the Persians, who had always maintained their independence if not their importance, and who were threatening the integrity of the empire. His death was entirely disconnected with his paganism, but occasioned a great deal

Julian.

of legendary invention. It was reported that he exclaimed in dying, "Thou hast conquered, O Galilean!" Of course this was pure fiction, but it none the less suggested the real fact in the case. Henceforth paganism was utterly dead, and no important attempt was ever again made to revive it. The soldiers had made no objection to Julian's religion, nor did they seem to care anything about it, one way or the other, for when the next emperor, Jovian, restored the ensign of the cross, they were indifferent. His reign was also soon over. In less than a year he died, and the officers of state who were with him (for Jovian was still absent from the capital on the military campaign begun by Julian) put Valentinian, a good soldier but no scholar, upon the throne. This emperor soon returned to Constantinople, abandoning the provinces beyond the Tigris. Appreciating the unwieldy magnitude of the empire, he made his brother Valens his associate, assigning him to the East.

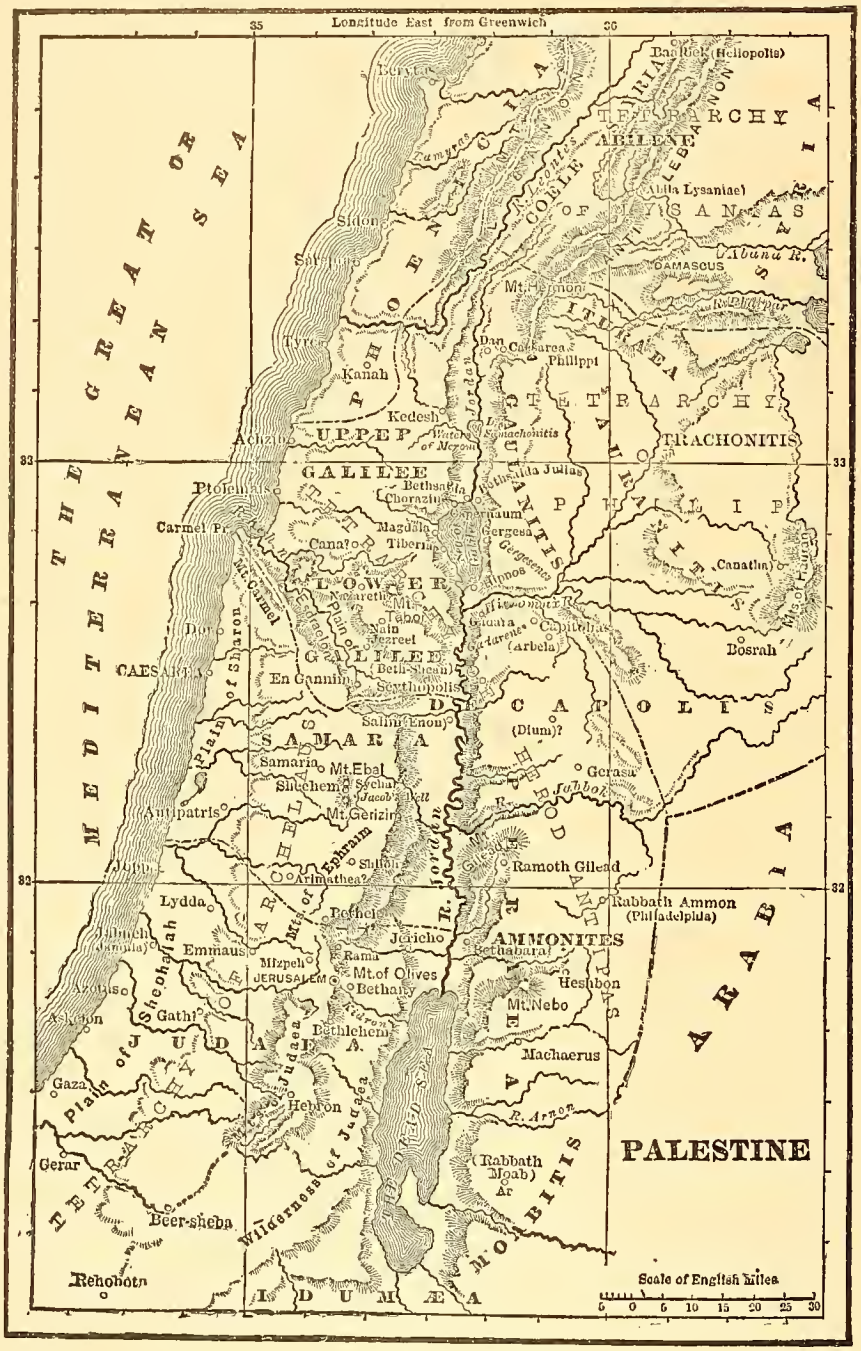
The successor of Valentinian was his son Gratian, who soon associated with him in the government his younger brother, Valentinian II. He resided himself in Treves or Paris, and the youthful brother emperor at Milan. Rome, as a city, was practically abandoned by the successors of the Cæsars long before it fell a prey to the Gothic and Vandal hordes. The brothers were both very weak and inefficient. Gratian put himself under the protection of Alaric the Goth, but was finally assassinated by Maximus, who had been declared emperor by the legions in Britain. Valentinian would have been served the same way, probably, had not Theodosius of Constantinople shielded him from harm, and secured him in the possession of the middle portion of the old empire. Thus, in A. D. 383, the Roman empire had three emperors, and was ruled by a triumvirate again, something as it was during the days of Octavius, Antony and Lepidus, four centuries earlier, when imperialism was in the throes of birth. Soon there was war between the three emperors, resulting in making Theodosius absolute master of the entire empire. At his death, he made what proved to be the permanent division of the empire into Eastern and Western, putting one of his own sons at the head of each empire.

From this time on, we have, as now, the Roman and the Greek churches. In 395, this important division was made. Without following up the subject ecclesiastically, it is important to note that the division of the church was the work of an emperor, rather than the result of theological schism. It followed in the path of politics, and may be put down as a political necessity.

With the dawn of the fifth century, the very last stage of Roman imperialism is reached. The Northern horde had devastated Greece, and turned covetous eyes upon Italy. Ravenna was then the capital. The military genius of Stilicho repulsed them with terrible slaughter, but he died in A. D. 408, leaving the emperor Honorius at the mercy of the still undismayed barbarian. The indomitable Alaric marched into Italy, and leaving the emperor at Ravenna, made straight for Rome. He wanted spoils, and knew the old city was the seat of wealth, if not of empire. Rome was powerless, and Ravenna rendered no assistance. The barbarian entered the city, wrought his pleasure, and retired from it after twelve days of sack. That was in A. D. 409.

Alaric as a Christian respected the churches, and those who sought refuge within them were spared, but the sack was complete. The Rome of antiquity had fallen, and although the new capital was not disturbed, the western empire itself crumbled, and disappeared in the night of the Dark Ages.

But before entering upon that period and phase of the world's history, or even following further the trail of events in Italy from Romulus to date, it will be necessary to pause over a collateral branch of Roman history, for the rise and fall of the empire, distinctively, was only a part of the greatness of Rome. A more potential influence than imperialism began its manifestations within the empire during the first emperor's reign, and from an obscure beginning developed into that vast entity called Christendom.


Longitude East from Greenwich
35
36
33
32
THE GREAT OR MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Beryta
Baalbek (Heliopolis)
TETRARCHY
ABILENE
(Abila Lysaniae)
LYSANIAS
Abana R.
DAMASCUS
Mt. Hermon
ITURAEA
Dan
Caesarea
Philippi
Sidon
Sarepta
Tyre
Kanah
Kedesh
Jordan
Lake Samachonitis
Water of Merom
TETRARCHY
TRACHONITIS
UPPER
GALILEE
Achzib
Ptolemais
Bethsaida
Chorazin
Bethsaida Julias
Capernaum
Gergesa
Magdala
Tiberias
Cana?
Carmel Pr.
Mt. Carmel
LOWER
GALILEE
Nazareth
Mt. Tabor
Nain
Jezreel
Gadara
Capitolias
(Arbela)
Hippos
Gergesenes
Canatha
Bosrah
Dor
CAESAREA
Plain of Sharon
En Gannim
Scythopolis
(Beth-Shean)
DECAPOLIS
Salim (Enon)
(Dium)?
SAMARIA
Samaria
Mt. Ebal
Shechem
Sychar
Jacob's Well
Mt. Gerizim
Gerasa
Jabbok
Antipatris
Jopp
Shiloh
Arimathea?
Ramoth Gilead
Rabbath Ammon
(Philadelphia)
Lydda
Bethel
Jericho
AMMONITES
Bethabara?
Jabneh
(Jamnia)
Emmaus
Mizpeh
JERUSALEM
Rama
Mt. of Olives
Bethany
Heshbon
Mt. Nebo
Azotus
Ashdon
Gath?
Bethlehem
Kidron
JUDAEA
Machaerus
Gaza
Hebron
Plain of Shephalah
Wilderness of Judaea
R. Arnon
Gerar
Beer-sheba
(Rabbath Moab)
Ar
MOABITIS
Rehoboth
IDUMÆA
ARABIA
PALESTINE
Scale of English Miles
5 0 5 10 15 20 25 30

PRIMITIVE CHRISTIANITY.

CHAPTER XXIX.

ROME AND CHRIST—THE JEWS AND JESUS—THE FUNDAMENTAL TRUTHS—FIRST CHURCHES—ST. PAUL AND THE PRIMITIVE FATHERS—VIRTUES AND FAITH OF THE EARLY CHURCH—PAGAN AND CHRISTIAN PERSECUTIONS COMPARED—FLEXIBILITY OF CHRISTIANITY—THE CATACOMBS—THE PRIMITIVE FATHERS—NICENE CREED.

THE history of Rome would be inexcusably defective if special prominence were not given to Christianity in its primitive stage. That period of ecclesiastical development belonged to the empire of the Cæsars. The founder of the religion which now prevails over Europe and America was a subject of Rome, and the distinctively primitive period of our faith was entirely Roman. By her conquests, her roads, and her general unification of many peoples, the Queen City of the world prepared the way for the propagandists of the faith. To contemporary eyes, the religion of the despised and crucified Nazarene was a mere trifle; but in the light of subsequent events, it is clothed with incalculable importance, outranking in vital force and molding power every other feature of Roman history. In its career is justified the prediction, "The stone which the builders rejected, the same has become the head of the corner," and that, too, whether the Romans or the Jews be considered as the "builders."

The Jews were almost unknown to the civilized world of olden times, and their religion was confined to the narrow tract of land called Palestine, their nationality becoming a great factor only after the past had begun to merge into and give place to the present. The chief claim, however, of the Hebrews to pre-eminence, is the production, humanly speaking, of Christianity. It is proposed to consider this mighty system of worship in its early stage, as a separate entity, and that without doctrinal bias, in a purely historical spirit. The fact that the birth of Jesus of Nazareth is the time from which all civilized modern nations compute dates, is a fitting testimony to the significance of his supreme personality. Born of lowly parents, there could have been no more improbable suggestion made during his lifetime, even when he was most prosperous, than that he would prove to be the most notable character in all history, but that such is the fact, is indubitable.

The four biographies of Jesus (for such the Gospels really are) agree in representing the founder of Christianity as a teacher of certain fundamental principles, and not as either an organizer or systematizer. He formed no church, formulated no creed. Content to teach practical truths, his aim as a teacher was to fill the heart of man with gentleness, and banish from it impure thoughts. His ideal was essentially original and new, so far as the great world of the Roman empire was concerned. In his own native Palestine was a small sect called

Essenes, by whom were practiced the virtues and graces exemplified and advocated by Jesus Christ. That sect may have derived its doctrines from the few Jews who had wandered into India, and learned the wisdom of the Christlike Chrisna. However that may be, the Christian religion as it was started by Jesus, and further promulgated by Paul, was a fresh element in human society. The old mythologies were almost dead. Men of education held all Olympus in contempt, and philosophy was no longer the satisfaction of spiritual longings. Something radically unlike either would naturally meet with favor.

The preaching of Jesus was indeed brief. At the age of thirty he abandoned his trade as a carpenter, and devoted himself to the life of an itinerant preacher, and healer of diseases. Less than three years later, his body was nailed to the cross, his public career ended. During that time he visited many places in his native land, and created a great sensation, but his influence did not extend beyond Canaan. To all appearances, he had entered upon a strictly provincial career. His most intimate associates, the disciples, and the devoted women who revered him the most, had no conception of his real mission.

The church at Jerusalem was the oldest of all the churches, but could hardly be called the mother church. In the earliest days of Christianity, very soon after the crucifixion, there were eight churches. The one at Jerusalem was a commune, each member pooling his property, and having all things in common. The other prominent and somewhat later churches were those at Antioch, Ephesus, Smyrna, Athens, Corinth, Rome and Alexandria.

For the most part, these churches attest the zeal and broad views of Paul. That great apostle of the Gentiles, as he is called, conceived the idea of making the doctrines and personality of Jesus the foundation of a world-wide religion; one which should supersede Judaism and paganism. It was a lofty thought, and the most stupendous undertaking that ever engaged the efforts of man. The success which attended the preaching of Christianity on the Pauline plan, must ever stand in history as a more far-reaching and exalted triumph of genius than any of the conquests of the world by arms. Mohammed was a sword-bearer, and his caliphs were men of war, but Jesus, Paul, and all the propagandists of primitive Christianity, were men of peace. Persecuted and maligned, they won their way by moral force, and when at last Constantine acknowledged the Christian religion as the state religion, he simply gave official recognition of the fact that, despite every obstacle, the new faith had conquered, the empire being more Christian than Pagan. The converts were mainly from the middle and lower classes, but included many of the nobility, and a large element of learning.

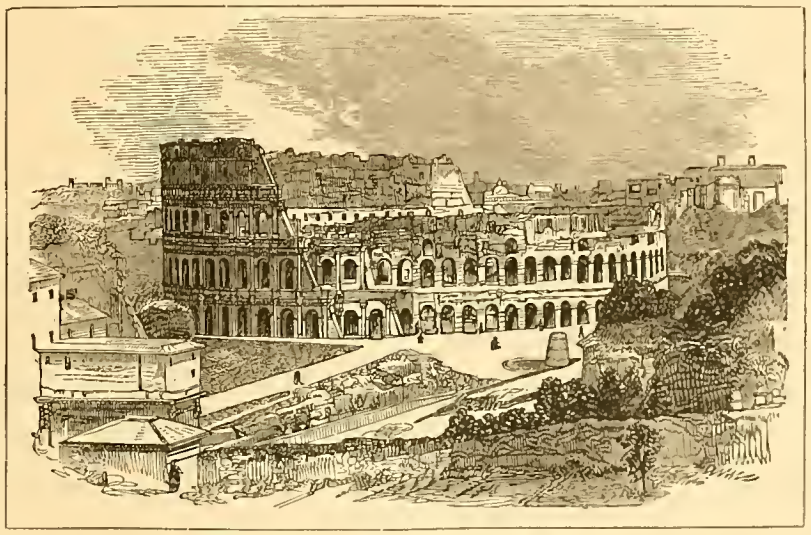
The primitive simplicity and purity of the church was maintained for the first two centuries, when the prevalence of the faith changed somewhat in its character. Angry disputes and immorality gained ground. Pious frauds and forgery were practiced. In their zeal to substantiate their peculiar views, disputants would often interpolate passages into the Testament, and even palm off spurious writings as sacred. A great deal of stress was laid upon the supposed near approach of the end of the world. The earth was very soon to be burnt up, and the wildest theories of impending ruin were entertained. The prophesied near approach of the end of the Jewish dispensation, and the establishment of the Christian religion, were interpreted to mean the literal destruction of the globe, at least of all physical life upon it. It may be remarked that that millenarian delusion has been the prolific parent of fanaticism, almost from the beginning of the Christian era.

We sometimes hear of the ten persecutions of the Christians by the Pagan emperors. There were at most only five, and these were slight, as compared with the Inquisition and kindred persecutions of Christians by Christians. In a strictly religious point of view, polytheism was tolerant, but there were religious rites and ceremonies blended with political institutions, as previously explained, which rendered the monotheistic scruples of Jews and Christians treasonable, in the light of Roman law. But "those light afflictions" were like a little water thrown upon a great flame, stimulating rather than quenching the zeal of the believers. "The blood of the martyrs is the seed of the church" was written by Tertullian, during the days of pagan supremacy, and was true of those light persecutions. Many a primitive Christian was obliged to contribute, however, to the brutal pleasure of a Roman multitude, gathered at the amphitheatre to witness

a contest between wild beasts and men. The trained and professional gladiators were often killed in the fierce combat, and the untrained Christians were almost always slain. Sometimes women and even children were thrown to the wild beasts for the delectation of a bloodthirsty populace. But the persecutions in later times, except in Germany, Holland and Great Britain, were so severe as to prevent the spread of opinions and sentiments opposed to the ruling church. Protestantism was burnt out of Italy, France and Spain, with a persistence and vehemence in persecution finding no parallel in the history of primitive Christianity. One general characteristic of Christianity, which very early manifested itself, deserves observation; namely, its adaptability. No other religion can at all compare with it in this regard.

There are ten religions within the scope of history, including the agnosticism of Confucius. All except Christianity are local, or, as in the case of Judaism, strictly national. When Greece and Rome developed in philosophy, outgrowing the crude myths of their ancestors, their religion remained stationary. The world moved on and left Olympus behind. Brahminism, Buddhism, and Islamism, each is substantially the same, always and everywhere, resembling the man who should wear the same clothing in all seasons and latitudes. Christianity has the elasticity which admits of and invites growth, while it defies outgrowth. There is absolutely no limit to its range of thought. The world has undergone many changes since its birth, but to every phase of human development it has accommodated itself. It thus gives promise of a permanence, which is not the fixity of the rock, but the gradual, sure, and persistent growth of the century plant. The progress of civilization demands frequent and radical changes, which must be met in disregard of precedents and prejudice, and it is ability to meet these demands that gives to Christianity the promise of universal spiritual empire. This adaptability enabled the primitive church to conquer the empire, survive the Dark Ages, and conform to the conditions of vitality peculiar to its ever-varying environment.

A peculiarly interesting feature of primitive Christianity was the catacombs of Rome. The Roman method of disposing of dead bodies was to burn the corpse. Cremation was almost universal in the Eternal City, and quite general throughout the empire. But the early Christians were opposed to destroying the body, whether by fire or other means. They looked for a literal resurrection of the body, and that in the near future. The catacombs were vast subterranean chambers which were used as receptacles of the bodies of believers in those primitive days. Many legends are told of the church of the catacombs which lack historical verification. It is probable that those underground rooms were the quarries from which building material for the city had been taken from time immemorial. Their use for the purposes of Christian burial is supposed to have been the first utilization of the space. The earliest mention of the catacombs was in the reign of Nero. Sometimes the persecuted church took refuge in the catacombs. Many inscriptions attest the piety of the early fathers. The symbols carved on the stones also bear testimony to the religious character of the place. No doubt the original quarries were greatly enlarged under the Christian influence and usage, and the catacombs are supposed to have reached their maximum dimensions in the fifth century.



RUINS OF THE COLISEUM, ROME.

The first age of the Christian church is called the

Apostolic age. That period extended from the crucifixion of Jesus to the death of St. John, or the destruction of Jerusalem. The overthrow of that city had a powerful influence upon the church. Armenia was the first country in which Christianity was established as the national religion. Wherever there were Hebrews dispersed, the religion of Christ early found some adherents.

Of the primitive fathers of note, the first was Ignatius, bishop of Antioch, where the believers were first called Christians. He died a martyr under Trajan. Justin Martyr was an eminent writer. He was beheaded under Marcus Aurelius in the seventy-fifth year of his age. Another martyr for the same period, Polycarp, deserves mention as the special friend and spiritual son of John the Evangelist. Irenæus, of Lyons, was a skillful theologian. He wrote much against gnosticism. He was martyred at the beginning of the third century. Next in point of time, and superior to all who have been named in ability and influence, was Tertullian, a native of Carthage. A lawyer by profession, he brought to Christianity a mind well trained for discussion. Origen, of Alexandria, was a learned teacher of the faith, and the author of some eminent treatises on religious subjects. But the greatest of all the Christian fathers was Augustine. A Numidian by birth, he may justly be called the great light of the Western church. His writings were very voluminous, and he may be said to have formulated the doctrines of the church. His powerful logic was directed against Pelagianism, and every form of heresy then extant. Pelagius believed in free will, while Augustine was a stout defender of the doctrine of man's moral inability and absolute dependence upon God. John Calvin was simply a later edition of Augustine. Besides these eminent fathers there were two of great renown, Jerome and Chrysostom. The former was a learned scholar whose crowning work was the translation of the Bible into Latin. His version of the sacred volume is called the Vulgate. Chrysostom was remarkable for his eloquence as a preacher. He was the great orator of the early church.

CATACOMBS OF ROME.

Two conspicuous names in this connection are Athanasius, bishop of Alexandria, and Arius. Of both we have heard something already. The former maintained the divinity of Christ and the trinity of the Godhead, while the latter was a Unitarian. The Nicene creed, which is substantially held by nearly all Christendom, is an embodiment of the views not only of Athanasius, but of nearly the entire primitive church.

THE PAPACY AND MODERN CHRISTIANITY.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE SECOND ROME—SPIRITUAL EMPIRE—THE MEDIEVAL PRIESTHOOD—CHURCH AND STATE—THE CHURCH AND LEARNING—THE EARLY POPES—ROME AND THEOLOGY—LEO THE GREAT—GREGORY THE GREAT—THE TEMPORAL POWER OF THE POPES—THE DECRETALS AND DONATION—THE GUELPHS—PAPAL CORRUPTION AND THE REFORMATION—PROTESTANTISM IN ITALY—THE MYSTICS—THE INQUISITION—THE JESUITS—THE DOGMA OF THE IMMACULATE CONCEPTION—PHILIP SCHAFF ON THE CHURCH OF ROME—PRESENT POPE AND THE VATICAN—SPIRITUAL DIVISIONS OF CHRISTENDOM—MODERN MISSIONS—A REFLECTION.

WITH the fall of the Western Empire Rome seemed to disappear forever. Indeed it had long before ceased to be a real power in the world, being little else than a city of luxury and reminiscence. But it was destined to a second greatness, a supremacy more potent and absolute than imperialism had ever known or conceived. The Vatican at Rome is to-day the capital of a mighty empire, no less real because spiritual.

In following the city of Romulus from its foundation to the stage in history now reached, it has been necessary to traverse a wide range of inquiry. Primitive Christianity was a part of the Roman Empire, springing up within it, and being greatly facilitated in its dissemination and growth by the mechanism of universal empire which centered in Rome. But primitive Christianity gave no special prominence to Rome itself. Jerusalem was the spiritual capital in those days of the Christian church. When, however, the Roman Empire and Jerusalem both lay in ruins, the miter of the Roman pontiff usurped the place of the scepter and the high priest, and to both the imperial purple and the holy sepulcher succeeded the surplice. In tracing the history of Italy we shall see much of the popes and the papacy; but without anticipating the next chapter, it may be well to consider the Church of Rome as a distinct factor in the world, and in this same connection glance at the Modern Church, without anticipating the great reformatory events yet to be noted.

When the Northern invaders poured into Italy, they found the Christian priesthood a powerful body, a tremendously influential power in the society of the entire empire; but the sovereignty of the Roman See may be called the "section of imperialism" subsequently saved from the general wreck. The Church of Rome was greedy for land, and early acquired vast territorial possessions. Its lust of power was a slower, but more momentous growth. After every vestige of sovereignty over Europe had been torn from Rome as a political capital, the priesthood undertook the establishment of an empire more despotic than the world had ever seen, and succeeded in its establishment. The popes, as we shall presently see, acquired an ascendancy over Europe more absolute and remarkable than the

rule of the Cæsars. The papacy cannot be attributed to any one man, but was the slow growth of centuries, accelerated by an occasional genius for organization, but mainly due to impersonal causes.

The medieval age was the golden age of superstition. It has been said that the ninth century was the age of the bishops; the tenth and eleventh, of the popes; but all those dark centuries, from Alaric to Luther, were ruled far more by the ecclesiastical than the secular power. It was not the union of church and state, but the sovereignty of the church over the state. In the language of Pope Innocent, "These two branches of power were the sun and moon;" the church being the sun, and the state, or crown, being merely the moon. The thunders of Rome were heard at every court, and the lightnings of the pontificate made the sky of all Europe lurid for a thousand years.

NICENE COUNCIL.

The church was not an unmitigated evil, however, even during this period. If it was autocratic, it did much to break down that bulwark of autocracy, the arrogance of birth. The priesthood, from the lowest to the highest, was open to all, however humble, and the stable-boy's son might hold the keys of St. Peter. There was something higher than royalty, and more potent than the blood of kings. Gradually and imperceptibly this idea prepared the way for democratic ideas. The priests were the allies of kings, it is true, the two despotisms being drawn together by a common danger and a common purpose; but unwittingly, the church did something to undermine the monarchy.

In the domain of learning it was partly good and partly bad. The priests were generally far from being men of learning, and the church did not encourage the cause of education, nevertheless, it is true that when the floods of ignorance and devastation swept over all Europe, threatening to utterly destroy the civilization of Athens, Alexandria and Rome, the monasteries of the continent served as the ark wherein to save alive some portion of ancient literature. We have already seen that much of the classics have been lost forever. Here and there a studious recluse clung to Plato, Aristotle, Homer, Virgil, Horace, or Cicero, and so the destruction was not complete. The church, as a body, deserves no credit for the preservation of ancient literature, but fortunately it had individual scholars among its secluded monks and privileged priests.

The term Pope means father (papa) and originally was by no means peculiar to the head of any particular church. It came gradually to be claimed by the bishop of Rome as his distinctive appellation. There have been 260 Popes of Rome, including St. Peter and the present pontiff, Leo XIII. The early list is somewhat uncertain. It is doubtful if Peter was ever the pastor of the church at Rome, although

he is supposed to have suffered martyrdom there under Nero. His pontificate is reckoned by the Romanists from A. D. 42 to 67. In the authorized list of popes all are called saints (with one exception) until the middle of the sixth century, and none after the middle of the sixteenth century, and very few after the eighth. However undesigned this may be, it suggests very fairly the most general fact in regard to the subject, namely, that in the primitive age of the church the Roman See was purely ecclesiastical, if not wholly religious, but for a thousand years it has been as thoroughly secular as any dynasty could be, although using the weapons of the Spirit largely for the accomplishment of its purposes. Not that all the popes have been bad, but that papacy has for a thousand years been eager for temporal power. And to-day, shut up in the Vatican, it still dreams of secular authority.

POPE GREGORY THE GREAT.

In the controversies between the theologians of the early church, Rome took a lively interest, and to its especial championship of the doctrine of the Trinity, was due in a very large measure its pre-eminence. It came to be the stronghold of orthodoxy, although the first Christian emperor was heretically inclined. Sylvester, who was made bishop of Rome in 314 and held the office twenty-two years, was the first Primate of all the Sees of Italy. He was raised to that dignity by Constantine and the Nicene Council in 325. He was in effect an archbishop. The thirty-sixth pope, Liberius, was deposed and banished by the Arian or Unitarian emperor, Constantius. He was a martyr to the corner-stone of orthodoxy, as now and usually held at Rome; but, singularly inconsistent as it may seem, Liberius was also the first in the list of popes to whom was denied canonization.

The first pope to absolutely claim universal authority over Christendom, was Leo the Great, in 440. He was a man of remarkable genius for executive matters. He claimed the primacy of the universal church, or of the Catholic church, on the ground that Jesus had said, "Thou art Peter, and upon this rock will I build my church." He scouted the corresponding claim of the Patriarch of Constantinople. The Roman and Greek churches from that time have been sharply outlined as rival and hostile hierarchies. Leo aspired to rule the East, no less than the West. His followers never formally renounced the claim, but practically contented themselves with the Western Empire. Between the two great divisions of Christendom there has not been any very considerable conflict, territorial boundaries being observed, except in a few cases.

Protestantism and Catholicism dispute the same territory; but the Roman and the Greek each enjoys a domain apart from the other. The claims, therefore, set up by the first Leo led to no such conflict as the one disputed by Luther during the pontificate of Leo X., the most memorable of all the twelve Leos. The West readily accepted the claims of Rome, and the East contemptuously ignored them in favor of Constantinople.

We find no notable pope from Leo until the accession of the greatest of all popes, Gregory, whose pontificate dates from 568 to 604. Those were troublous times in Europe. No great ruler sat upon any throne, and Gregory seized every opportunity to magnify his office. He extended the authority of the Church of Rome to Spain, and strengthened it throughout Europe, as a spiritual sovereignty; but his great work was the elevation of the host, as it might be called,—the raising of ecclesiastical authority above thrones and sovereignties. He also took care to strengthen the hold of the church by improving the ceremonials and worship. Music was cultivated, and it might be said to have given to the Roman church its splendor and pomp, the peculiarities which alike inspire awe in the breast of a savage.

and please the æsthetic taste of the cultivated worshiper. In A. D. 730, the title of Pope was changed from *Servus Servorum*, Servant of Servants, to *Dominus*, or Lord. Gregory II. was the pope who received the sword of Lutprand in recognition of this new sovereignty. It was not, however, until the coronation of Charlemagne, 800, that the papacy received its full measure of jurisdiction. The Lombards resisted the popes, but Charles the Great confirmed their claims. Leo III. was the pope who crowned that greatest of medieval sovereigns. The temporal authority of the popes continued until the unification of Italy under Victor Emanuel.

GREGORY VII.

It was under the pontificate of Adrian I. that the forged documents known as the Decretals and Donation were devised, which have been called "those two magic pillars of the spiritual and temporal monarchy of the popes." By the former, all ecclesiastical disputes, wherever occurring, were to be referred to the bishop of Rome for settlement, and by the latter, Constantine (the supposed author of the first decree) donated to the pontiffs the temporal authority over Rome, Italy, and the Western empire generally. These forgeries would not have been perpetrated, had there not been the densest ignorance among the people, including Charlemagne himself, and his court; also a long period of previous arrogation of nearly that much authority. That those documents were spurious, admits of no doubt at the present time, but their falsity was not discovered until long after their promulgation. Building on that false foundation, and the gradual encroachments which preceded those most stupendous of all forgeries, the papacy pursued a career of arrogance and licentiousness, of treachery and vice.

With very rare exceptions, the popes, for a thousand years, were monsters of villainy, and eminent only for their crimes. They were the heads of the Guelph party, and filled Italy with woe. It was a desolating, sickening and horrible contest for temporal power in Italy, with some diversions in favor of superstition in general, and against the spirit of Protestantism in particular, especially as that spirit found expression in Italy. There were some mutterings of the coming Reformation, but intrigues, plots and infamies seemed to engage the almost undivided attention of the popes down to the time when Martin Luther and kindred reformers began their stupendous work, when a new era in papacy was inaugurated.

Until the eleventh century, the popes were elected by the clergy and the people of Rome, but for eight hundred years the college of cardinals has had the authority, a two-thirds majority being necessary to a choice. There have been numerous cases—nearly twenty—of sharp, bitter and protracted contests, resulting in two or more prelates claiming the tiara at the same time.

It was in this century, 1073, that Hildebrand was elected pope, taking the title of Gregory VII., under whom was waged the "War of the Investitures." By the term investiture was designated the ceremony by which parish priests and other clergy were clothed with the functions of their sacred office. The secular authorities, especially in Germany and France, insisted upon the right to *invest* the clergy, while the pope insisted that such investiture belonged within the province of the pontificate. The issue thus raised involved the relative superiority of the secular and the spiritual authorities. It was a question of church or state. Henry III. of Germany set up a new pope, Gilbert of Ravenna; but Gregory had the alliance of Robert of Normandy, and was, withal, a great genius. The contest was still in progress when Gregory died, 1085. The question of investiture was not decided until 1122, when a

compromise was effected—a compromise which gave the lion's share of the advantage to the Papacy.

When the Protestant Reformation set Europe ablaze with religious ideas hostile to the Papacy, Pope Leo X. found himself compelled to make Italian politics secondary, and the suppression of Protestantism primary. From that time to date the spiritual empire of Rome has engaged the chief attention of the popes.

Since the Leo who fulminated his bull against Luther, none of the popes have been great elements in Italian affairs. They clung to the temporality of the petty Roman state with great tenacity, but not so much for its own sake as from fear lest its loss should prove a fatal blow at the hierarchy itself.

The first outcropping of Protestantism was in 1134, when Arnold of Brescia entered emphatic protest against papal corruption. The Waldenses, disciples of Peter Waldo, of Lyons, date from 1170, and early acquired foothold in the valleys of Piedmont. Persecuted and maligned, they held their own, and to-day number between twenty and thirty thousand communicants. They constitute almost the entire Protestant force of Italy. They have sixteen churches. The Albigenses were a similar but smaller sect of Protestants belonging to the period of Waldo and his immediate followers. Savonarola, who preached at Florence in the latter part of the fifteenth century, effected the downfall of the Medici, the ruling family in that part of Italy, but anti-Papacy which he earnestly proclaimed, gained no permanent and general foothold in the immediate national vicinage, as it might be called, of the popes, and he himself died the death of a martyr.

The Mystics were deeply spiritual religious enthusiasts, whose influence dates from the middle of the fourteenth century, and who were not at all controversial. Thomas à Kempis, who died in 1471, was the best known of these remarkable men. His treatise on "The Imitation of Christ" has been translated into every language, and is the expression of the most intense piety. Religious recluses became somewhat common at an early day, and may be closely identified with the Essenes of Judea, quite fully described in a previous chapter: but monasticism reached its climax in mendicant orders in the thirteenth, fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. They constituted at once the best and the worst features of the Romish church. To the serious, monastic life, whether recluse or mendicant, afforded special incitements to purity, while to the hypocritical it offered special facilities for imposition and immorality. Medieval mysticism, as expressed in à Kempis and others of his class, carried spirituality to the highest pinnacle of the temple of faith; but the modern church has had its mystics, from Spener and Francke, who founded the Halle school of pietists in Germany, to Moody and Sankey of contemporary fame.

But to return to the papacy, we find in the Inquisition a more natural development of hierarchal ideas. It was early in the thirteenth century that Innocent III. established the Inquisition, but it was not until Protestantism captured Germany and England, and seriously threatened Europe, that this instrument of persecution was put in full operation. At first the Inquisition was merely a process of investigation, as the term would indicate, but it grew into an institution terrible in power and cunning in device. It spread to every country where the authority of the pope of Rome was recognized. With its *auto-da-fé*, it was used for the eradication of the Jews from Spain, no less than the Protestants from the face of the earth. In proportion as the papacy was strong the Inquisition was thorough. Its victims were millions in number. Nothing can be adduced in its extenuation unless it be the fact that the inquisitor was often sincere in his merciless bigotry.

Jesuitism sprang from the same soil as the Inquisition, but it can boast some positive good and some extenuating virtues. The Society of Jesus was founded by Ignatius Loyola, a Spaniard, and received pontifical sanction from Pope Paul III. in 1540. Originally it was designed to be an order of monks, bound to the ordinary monastic vows of chastity, poverty and obedience; but the second vicar-general of the order, James Laynez, gave to it its present and historical character, a character which has made Jesuitical a synonym for deceptive. The maintenance of the papal authority against any and all adversaries was made the prime object of the order, under the motto, "The end justifies the means." It was and is a secret society with wonderful adaptation to the exercise of influence. By a subtle process of insinuation and percolation, as

one might say, the Jesuits gained control of the reins of government, the institutions of learning, and the great agencies of power in many countries. From being a protector of Rome the order grew into a vast and dangerous empire. In 1773 a papal bull was promulgated for the dissolution of the entire order. This was done at the request of France, Spain, Portugal, Parma, Naples and Austria. The order could only exist as a recognized institution in Russia, thanks to the sufferance of Catharine II. For several years the society seemed powerless; if not dead. But after the terrible upheaval of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars, the Jesuits were looked upon with more favor, and in 1814 the order was re-established in its original form by a papal bull. Since then Jesuitism has been less arrogant than formerly, but to its influence in large measure may be attributed the "Syllabus of Error" and the dogma of Papal Infallibility. The latest blow at the Jesuits was struck by the Republic of France in the secularization of French education. The chief credit and boast of Jesuitism is the heroic self-sacrifice of the order in carrying the gospel to the heathen, especially in America. Jesuit missions did much to Christianize the aborigines of this continent, more particularly in South America and on the Pacific coast; also to establish pioneer churches in many parts of the far Orient.

It was in 1854 that the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin Mary was proclaimed as a divine dogma,

ST. PETER'S AT ROME, WITH COLONADES.

and the Vatican Council of 1870 declared the pope to be "the infallible bishop of bishops." In the year 1864 the pope issued the "Syllabus of Errors," a general bull against, or condemnation of, modern civilization, including scientific thought and religious freedom.

Speaking of the worship and ceremonies of the church of Rome, the learned Philip Schaff observes: "The Roman church accompanies its members from the cradle to the grave, receiving them into life by baptism, dismissing them into the other world by extreme unction, and consecrating all their important acts by the sacramental mysteries and blessings. It draws all the fine arts into its service.

Gothic cathedrals, altars, crucifixes, Madonnas, pictures, statues and relics of saints, rich decorations, solemn processions, operatic music,—all combine to lend their great attractions for the common people, and for cultured persons of prevailing æsthetic tastes, especially among the Latin races. Catholic service is the same all over the world, even in language, the Latin being its sacred organ, and the vernacular being only used for sermons which are subordinate. Its throne is the altar. It centers in the mass, a communion service, which is regarded as a real though unbloody repetition or continuation of the atoning sacrifice of Christ on the Cross."

The present pope of Rome, Leo XIII., is said to be seriously considering the propriety of removing his residence from the Vatican at Rome to some other spot. Several places have been suggested as eligible capitals for the great hierarchy, Malta especially; but there is no immediate prospect of a change. The Vatican, which embraces St. Peter's, is the grandest achievement of all architecture. There are said to be 11,422 rooms in it, not counting mere closets.

All the churches not belonging to the Roman or Greek communion are Protestants, except a few remnants of the apostolic churches in Asia, the Armenian, the Nestorian, the Jacobite, and the still less important remnants in Egypt and Abyssinia. The Eastern churches, including the Greek, number over 80,000,000; Protestant, something more than 120,000,000; Roman Catholic, about 200,000,000; making the grand total of Christendom over 400,000,000.

After the evangelization of Europe the Christian world seemed indifferent to the further propagation of the faith, until late in the seventeenth century, when there was an awakening to "newness of life." The Dutch exerted themselves for Java and Ceylon, the Danes for India, Xavier and fellow-Catholics for Japan, America and Africa. Very great progress was made apparently toward Christianizing the pagan world, but the seed sown resulted in meager harvests in permanent effects. The evangelized portions of India, China and Japan are traceable to missionary labors belonging to the nineteenth century.

Speaking of modern missions, Dr. Hurst says: "The gospel was first preached in Madagascar by missionaries of the London Missionary Society in 1818. Their labors, joined chiefly to those of the Church and Friends' Societies, have resulted in the overthrow of idolatry. The Queen and her government accept Christianity; and from the capital, by contributions of converted Malagasy natives, missionaries have been sent to unconverted tribes in distant parts of the island. In 1820 the American Board began a mission in the Sandwich Islands, and in less than half a century of earnest, persistent work a nation was redeemed from barbarism. Where there used to be only savages there are now Christians, who not only support their own churches but send missionaries to other islands. Wesleyan missionaries introduced Christianity into the Fiji Islands in 1835. The Fijians were a most savage and degraded people, whose horrible cannibalistic feasts made their very name a terror. Christianity, as preached by the missionaries of the Wesleyan, London, and one or two other societies, have effected a wonderful change among these cannibals. They have given up their old practices, and become a Christian nation. Churches and schools succeed the *bures* or temples; family worship is general; marriage is sacred; the Sabbath is observed; and law and order reign. Many thousands are communicants in the churches, and devoted Fijians go to distant islands as missionaries and teachers. Some of them have recently fallen victims to the cannibals of New Britain. Before 1812 there were no native Christians in Polynesia. Now there are no less than 340,000, of whom 68,000 are communicants." The aggregate membership of mission churches in 1879 was 575,486.

Thus we have as the supreme phenomenon of the world, the most notable feature of all history, the religion founded by a Roman subject, one who never opposed imperialism, but, on the contrary, advised the paying of tribute to Cæsar, and general conformity to temporal authority. Out of the Roman empire, but not at all as a result of Roman civilization, came a power which not only gave a second birth to Rome itself, but a new impulse and character to all nations and peoples.

ITALY AND THE ITALIANS.

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE YOUNGEST NATION—THE LOMBARDS—ITALY IN THE DARK AGES—THE FREE CITIES—THE CHIEF GLORY OF MEDIEVAL ITALY—MODERN ITALY—VICTOR EMANUAL AND ITALIAN UNITY—PIO NINO—PRESENT GOVERNMENT OF ITALY—CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY—ITALIAN LITERATURE—ITALY AND ART—THE ITALIAN RENAISSANCE.

THE Italy of to-day is the youngest member of the family of nations. It was not until Victor Emanuel, in the last decade, unified the country under one crown and one constitution that the present nation came into existence. Prior to that time, church and state were inseparably blended on that peninsula, the former being in the mastery. The kingdom of Italy, as it now stands, has an area of 112,396 square miles, and consists of sixty-nine provinces. The principal cities, to name them in the order of their population, are Naples, Milan, Rome, Palermo, Turin, Florence, Genoa, Venice, Bologna, Messina, Leghorn and Catenia.

Italy, as the peninsula once known as Latium is now called, may be said to the product of the Lombards, who poured into the country from the North, being to that peninsula what the Angles were to England. The very name was borrowed from a Lombard prince, Italicus, who, however, was less entitled to that honor than Albion, the king of the Lombards in Italy about the middle of the sixth century. The year 568 is the date for the division line between Ancient Rome and Modern Italy. Albion was the Columbus, Italicus the Amerigo in the case.

The Lombards were the bravest of the brave. From the heights of the Alps they beheld the pleasant valleys and fertile plains of the South, and moved over with their families. There was no devastation. They exercised squatter sovereignty without the shedding of blood. They formed a new tenantry. Some of the old inhabitants moved further south, others remained, and the two sets of inhabitants became mixed, as were the Saxons and the Normans in England. The Lombards adopted the civilization they found, including the Christian religion. Their sway did not extend to the maritime cities of the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas. The Latins who fled cherished bitter animosity to the Lombards in their southern retreats, and so did the city of Rome, which, though nominally subject at that time to the Cæsars at Constantinople, was really ruled, even at that early period, by the Pontiffs. The Franks were sought in alliance by the older race, and Charlemagne, their greatest sovereign, conquered Italy in 774, receiving his coronation at Rome Christmas-day, 800.

During the darkest centuries of the Dark Ages Italy was almost constantly the victim of petty and interminable warfare. The Lombards invoked German alliances, as the Latins and Romans had French. In 961, Otho the Great restored temporary peace. The Lombards soon rebelled against the German yoke. In a generation or so, all was once more confusion, anarchy and bloodshed, remaining so until Barbarossa, entering Italy in 1154, made a desperate effort to assert Teutonic supremacy. The bravery of the Italians was such that he was baffled, and in 1183, the peace of Constance recognized the independent rights of the Italian cities. "Thus ended," says Mariotti, "the first and noblest struggle in Europe between liberty and despotism."

FLORENCE.

And now comes into conspicuous prominence several cities of Italy, once mighty factors in the world's work. First of these was Venice, queen of the Adriatic, which was founded by Roman citizens when Alaric and Attila invaded the country. That city avoided, as far as possible, the troubles and turmoil of the land and gave herself to commerce. She was the Carthage of the period. The first Doge was elected in 697. The founding of Venice near the island of Rialto dates from 809. St. Mark is its patron saint, and the cathedral of that name is its most famous edifice. Istria and Dalmatia were united to this urban republic in 997.

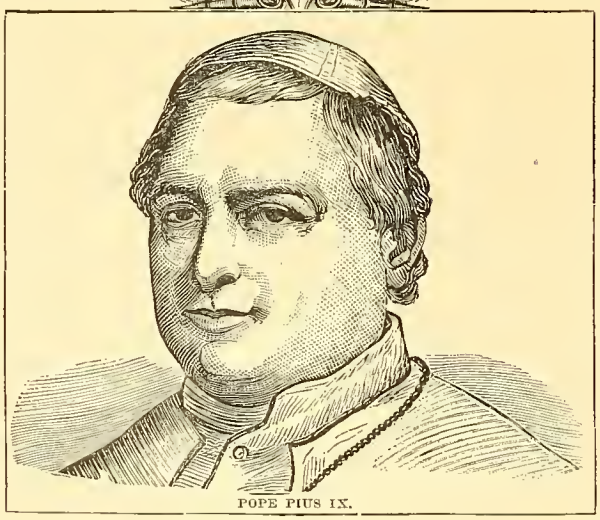
Genoa and Pisa, on the other side of the Adriatic, were free and independent states from the beginning of the eleventh century. These three republics are medieval in origin. Their early annals are shrouded in impenetrable mystery, but their petty contests and rivalries would not be of interest if preserved. Later, but similar, were the origins of Naples, Amalfi and Gaeta. Genoa, the birth-place of Columbus, was long the queen of the Mediterranean, and the Genoese are still the best sailors on that sea. The Venetian aristocracy, it may be added, long bloody and tyrannical, still cherishes the pride of the Doges. The sea, now receding from the lagoons, renders hopeless all attempts to regain

a footing among the mighty cities of Europe. Florence, Milan, Pavia and Palermo each, are cities replete with interest to one minutely studying Italy.

The real significance of Italian history is not in the rivalries of petty states and factions. The sovereigns who deserve attention are the Popes, and not the Guelphs and the Ghibelines, the Borgias and the Medici. It was not until Victor Emanuel and Garibaldi arose that a single name, military or political, acquired sufficient importance to merit consideration, beyond the sphere of the Papacy

VICTOR EMANUEL II.

Italy presents no point of special political interest until the house of Savoy appears above the waves. In 1870 was accomplished the unification of Italy with Rome as its capital. In this illustrious house of Savoy, under which this grand result was obtained, there were three Charles Emanuels, three rulers bearing the name of Victor Amadeus, and two Victor Emanuels, all creditable rulers and men of some genius, the most illustrious being the last of the eight. They raised the petty dukedom of Savoy to the kingdom of Sardinia, and later, to the kingdom of Italy. The crowning elevation was achieved by Emanuel II., father of Humbert, the present king of Italy. He claimed the title of King of Italy as early as 1861, having been crowned King of Sardinia in 1849, in the thirtieth year of his age; but the full measure of his ambition was delayed until 1870. Louis Napoleon supported the Pope and kept him in the temporality of the Papal States by French bayonets. The king of Italy had removed his capital from Turin to Florence, but could not enter Rome. Victor Emanuel was so fortunate as to have the assistance of that great statesman, Cavour, and that grand patriot, Garibaldi; and although excommunicated by the pope, he remained faithful to the Roman hierachy as a spiritual power. He kept the cause of Italian unity separate from religion. The Crimean war gave him opportunity to distinguish himself and gain for his nation the respect of the great powers. Italy derived honor and benefit, indirect, but great, from that war, and this was true of no other participant in it.

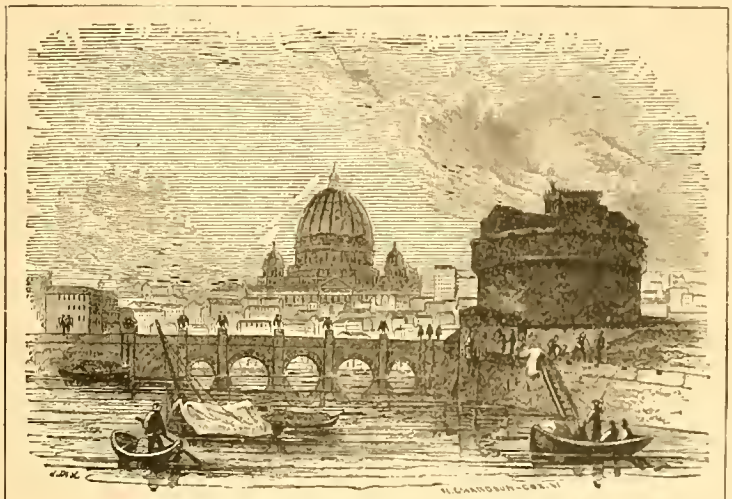


POPE PIUS IX.

Victor Emanuel had repeated conflicts with Austria, and won some victories at Austrian expense. He was in antipathy to France for barring his way to the Eternal City. Therefore he was in close sympathy with Prussia in its war with both of those powers. From Prussian victory over both, Italy derived substantial advantage, especially from the fall of the Napoleonic empire. Rome then opened her gates to the great king as a matter of course, amid the wildest enthusiasm. The people rejoiced exceedingly at the change in rulers. The dream of Italian nationality had always been fondly cherished by the Romans, and they saw in Victor Emanuel the resurrection of old Rome in its better days. The venerable Pope, a good old man, one of the few real saints of the Pontificate, shut himself up in the Vatican, not from fear, but in the

indulgence of what in boys is called "the sulks." There he remained, chosing to play the *role* of prisoner and victim, until the serenity of death came to his release, when Pius IX. was succeeded by another old man, Leo XIII.

Pio Nino was born in 1792, and came to the papal throne in 1846. Personally kind and just, he was a staunch upholder of the ancient spirit of despotism, and sought to prop up the falling fortunes of the Pontificate. He may be said to have enlarged the creed of Rome by two doctrines; namely, the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary as well as her son, and the infallibility of the Pope in all matters of faith and morals. He bluntly opposed a free press, free speech, liberty of conscience, and popular and modern ideas of civil rights, being thoroughly and consistently medieval. The Italians revered his virtues, but disregarded his political advice. His successor is a man of much ability, but thus far he has effected nothing to make his name remembered. Of him it can be said, that he strenuously clings to the old ways and ideas; but he gradually accepts, apparently in good faith, the inevitable and complete loss of temporal power. No dynasty in Europe has such a hold upon its people as the Italian, and all thought of restoring the papal temporality may well be dismissed.



View of Rome, showing the Castle of St Angelo and St. Peter's.

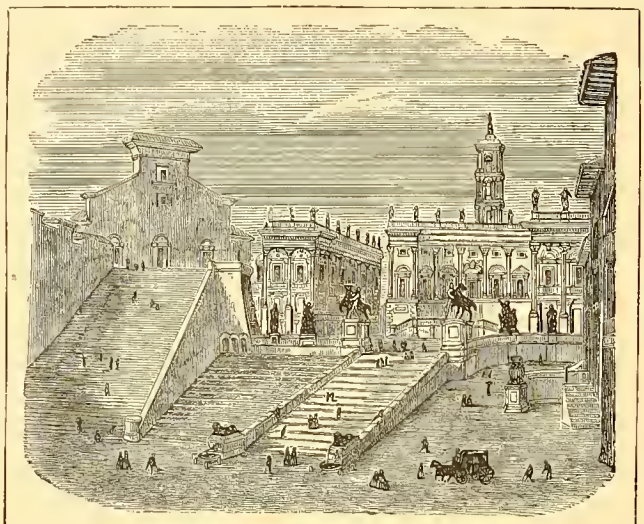
The government of Italy is a constitutional monarchy, with a senate appointed for life, and a chamber of 508 deputies elected by popular suffrage. The press is free and the people contented. The national debt is large, but the country is, on the whole, prosperous. The educational system is good. The railroads and canals afford sufficient facilities for transportation. The present population is not far from thirty millions. The great industries are silk culture, wine making, and the production of works of art.

Italy can boast a splendid literature, and an incomparable art. The chief of its authors is Dante, whose poetic representation of the Romish view of the future life is an immortal work. Under the guidance of Virgil he explored hell and purgatory, and then the spirit of his lost love, Beatrice, led him through Paradise. Dante ranks with Goethe, and second only to the incomparable Shakspeare. His works have been translated into all tongues, and are the delight of a peculiarly wide circle of readers. Another familiar name is Tasso. He was very highly esteemed in his day, but wiser after-judgment placed him in the lower rank of genius. Boccaccio, whose tales would be rejected by a modern publisher as indecent, occupies a conspicuous place on account of seniority. Like the two other Italian authors just named, he was one of the pioneers of modern literature, and is deserving of great credit for doing so well at so early a period. Italy did much for the Present at its dawn, and then subsided, the life of the nation sapped apparently by the evil influences of a church which would sacrifice any and everything to build up and maintain ecclesiastical authority. Its best work was in the line of art.

Painting, as it now exists, was brought from Constantinople to Italy in the eleventh century, and thence it spread over Europe. There were many schools or styles of painting in Italy, nearly every town having its characteristic invention of which it could boast, its line of artists culminating generally in some great master. Florence could claim Da Vinci and Michael Angelo; Rome had Raphael; Bologna, Guido; Parma, Correggio; Venice, Titian and Paul Veronese. Not infrequently sculpture and painting went together. Germany and the Netherlands did great things for modern art, and Germany, France, and to some extent, Spain, have

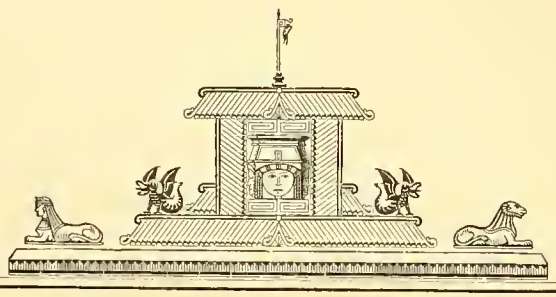
contributed very materially to the artistic wealth of the world; but all combined cannot equal this one small country, the peninsula of Italy. What Greek art was to the ancients, that is Italian art to modern times.

Italy sustains a peculiar relation to ancient and modern civilizations as the great conservator and restorer of ancient literature. The chief service of that country in the domain of letters was not so much the production of original genius as of faithful restorers of the past. That was the supreme service of the Italian renaissance. Petrarch and Boccaccio wrought most nobly in the restoration of the ancient classics, and a brilliant essayist observes, "Their enthusiasm imparted an impetus to research, and a universal interest in manuscript and antiquities sprang up. Monasteries were searched, and monks were bribed, when no better way availed, to give up their treasures. Pilgrims traveled to Byzantium in search of MSS. as in earlier days they had of relics in the Holy land. No less earnest was the work of collecting and revising the MSS. thus obtained. No effort was spared to arrive at the original meaning of an author, and years were sometimes spent upon a single work." It was most appropriate, certainly, that Italy, the heir of Rome, should thus reclaim and perpetuate the treasures of classic literature.



THE MODERN CAPITOL AT ROME.

Italy has been called a paradox, and from one point of view such it certainly is. With a vicious and deplorable financial system it enjoys industrial prosperity. The aggregate of industries rose 16 per cent during the last decade, and the average per capita 10 per cent. Exports increase more rapidly than imports. In manufactures great advancement is being made. Taxes are high. Not less than thirty-one per cent of the earnings of the people is required to support the government. In France it is seventeen and a half per cent, and in Great Britain twelve per cent. The increase in the wealth of the people during the seventh decade of this century was one hundred and ten million pounds sterling, but the national debt increased during the same period 150 millions. The people suffer from the lack of food, or rather they are small eaters. The amount consumed is less according to population than that of any part of Europe, Portugal alone excepted. If the people ate more and heartier food their industrial capacity might be much greater.



THE DARK AGES.

CHAPTER XXXII.

MEDIEVAL CHAOS—FEUDALISM—FEUDAL TENURES—GUIZOT ON FEUDALISM—CHIVALRY—THE CRUSADES—HISTORY OF EACH IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER—CHARLEMAGNE—DANTE—THE MINNESINGERS, TROUBADOURS AND THE TROVIERS—WITCHCRAFT—TESTIMONY OF LECKY—WESLEY ON WITCHCRAFT—ITS SURVIVAL OF THE DARK AGES.

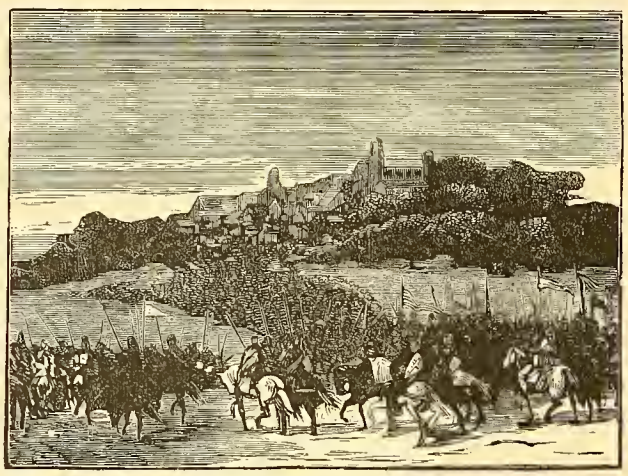
THE printing press may be regarded as the dividing line in respect to the dissemination of knowledge, between the old world and the modern; but in treating of nations and peoples, the more natural demarkation is that neutral belt known as the Dark Ages. The Roman Empire was first divided, as we have seen, falling apart of its own weight, and then the western half of it was devastated by barbaric Norsemen. A period of chaos followed in the west, a night with no light but "the horned moon" of the Crescent, and as morning approached, a few stars twinkled in the heavens. That crescent queen of the Dark Ages was the Saracen empire, which will engage our attention in the next chapters, and the stars of the dawn were the modern nationalities of Europe which gradually emerged from the medieval night. Those nations, differentiated by the natural boundaries of language, are the Turks, the Russians, the Italians, the Germans, the French, the Spanish (including the Portuguese), the Scandinavians and the English. These seven peoples are the nebulæ thrown off by the sun of imperial Rome. It shall be the purpose of this chapter to set forth the condition of Europe during the Dark Ages, apart from the Papacy, already considered, and the empires which are to be severally brought out in subsequent chapters.

During the entire period of history, nothing so desolate and vicious can be found as this chiliad of darkness. It seemed as if civilization had fled from the homes of men, and no morning would ever dawn upon Western Europe. The religion of Jesus of Nazareth had been adopted in theory, while the Christianity of actual practice was in the sharpest possible contrast to the benevolent and gentle teachings of the crucified Christ. Violence, bloodshed, brutality and crime made Europe a vale of tears.

The chief feature of the period was feudalism, and that was born of the necessity of seeking protection at the price of liberty. Political institutions and national authority afforded no actual safeguards against rapine and murder. The farmer had no assurance that he should reap what he had sown, or enjoy what he had harvested. The country was everywhere so overrun with marauders, that neither person nor property was safe. Husbands and brothers were slain, wives and sisters subjected to outrage worse than death, and the robbers and despoilers were entrenched in strongholds. Finally there came

to be a truce between the weak and the strong, by which the former put themselves under vassalage to the latter, serving them in war and paying tribute to them in peace, all in the hope that self-interest would dictate to the robber in his castle that he should protect the peasant in his hut. To such an extent did the lord become interested in the vassal that some security was afforded. Thus did barbarism work out a certain degree of reformation. Feudalism was a great amelioration of the condition of affairs to which it owed its own existence. It gradually developed into an elaborate system.

For the most part, the tenantry of Europe at the present times is a relic of feudalism. The legal ownership of the soil rests in most cases upon no just title of purchase, but upon the corner-stone of rapine and violence. Gradually, as nations rose into definite outlines of jurisdiction, the state took the place of the fief and the vassal became a subject, until, in modern times, little remains of feudalism, except in the matter of land tenure. The reliance of the people for redress and protection is not upon the lord of the nearest castle, but upon the magistrate who represents the sovereignty of the law.



MARCH OF THE CRUSADERS

In his History of Civilization, M. Guizot makes some extravagant claims for feudalism, but the following passage is an admirable presentation of facts in regard to the system: "There was nothing morally common between the holder of the fief and his serfs. They formed part of his estate; they were his property; and under this word property are comprised not only all the rights we delegate to the public magistrate to exercise in the name of the state, but likewise all those which we possess over private property; the right of making laws, of levying taxes, of inflicting punishment, as well as that of disposing of them—of selling them. There existed not, in fact, between the lord of the domain and the cultivators, so far as we consider the latter as men, either rights, guarantees or society. * * This system seemed, however, naturally to pour into the mind of every possessor of a fief a certain number of ideas and moral sentiments—ideas of duty, sentiments of affection. That the principles of fidelity, devotedness and loyalty became developed and maintained by the relations in which the possessors of fiefs stood towards one another, is evident."

Another generic feature of the period was chivalry. It is said in praise of Don Quixote, that it laughed chivalry out of Europe, and that was a great and good thing to do when done, for the morning of modern day had broken; but in its way and time chivalry was very beneficent. It stimulated and cultivated the sentiment of honor, and honor is one of the fundamental ingredients of good character, both individual and national. Chivalry was born in the reign of Charlemagne, although plain traces of its rudiments may be found in the early Teutons, the Germans of Tacitus. The knight-errant of romance, bravely redressing the wrongs of suffering innocence, without thought of reward or danger, was not a myth. Found in all parts of Europe in those times of universal wrong, chivalry was the highest ideal presented of real goodness. Often fighting in a tournament, which was about the same as a modern prize-fight (only arms, armor and horses were allowed the combatants), still the knight was a messenger of avenging justice, an angel of succor to the unfortunate. Loyalty, courtesy and valor were the cardinal virtues of a true knight.

The Crusades belong to the Dark Ages. There were seven of them, all substantially alike in cause and purpose. They attest the monstrous folly within the range of universal possibility. Of nothing has the European branch of the human family

more occasion to be ashamed than of these frenzied efforts to gain possession of that empty hole in a rock called the Holy Sepulcher. Viewed in the light of modern practicality, there was no occasion for that series of wars. The Saracens did indeed have possession of the tomb of our Lord, but even from the standpoint of Christian devotion, there was no reason why that fact should disturb the equanimity of all Europe. But Peter the Hermit, a crazy fanatic, conceived the idea of arousing popular zeal for the rescue of that tomb from the Mohammedans, on the ground that Jesus Christ was to come again very soon, his second appearing to be on the spot made sacred by his passion, resurrection and ascension. The vast multitudes who left home and all local endearments, animated by a common purpose, mingled together as friends and brethren. For the first time the peoples of Europe met on a common footing of amity. They were not fighting each other, and the narrow ideas of devotion to a petty sovereignty were forgotten. They came together on a basis of brotherhood as broad as the continent. They learned something, each from all. The sparse seeds of civilization were scattered, to bear fruit and be the beginning of a new era. There was a commingling which proved of incalculable advantage to Europe. Out, then, of the most gigantic folly of all times, grew one of the most beneficent impulses of all times, and if the Crusades had no justification, their horrors and devastations have certainly proved a blessing in disguise.

The first Crusade dates from 1096 to 1099. The leader, Peter the Hermit, had for his first lieutenant, Walter the Penniless. To their standard rallied in those three years six large armies, numbering, all told, 600,000. Several very distinguished knights gained renown in that Crusade. Godfrey of Bouillon, afterwards the King of Jerusalem, belonged to that crusade. So did Tancred, Raymond of Toulouse, and Hugh the Great. They besieged Jerusalem, and in July, 1098, the holy city fell into their hands. The object of Peter had been gained, only the success was not permanent. In 1147 the Mohammedans took Edessa and prepared to attempt the recapture of Jerusalem. That called out the second Crusade, which continued two years. The Abbot of Clairvaux, St. Bernard, was the great apostle of this uprising, and the excitement amounted to a mania. The kings of France and Germany took the field in person, with an aggregate army of 1,200,000. It seemed as if all Europe was

TAKING OF JERUSALEM BY THE CRUSADERS.

Engines were framed by some Genoese artists, who had fortunately landed in the harbor of Jaffa. Two movable turrets were constructed and rolled forward with devout labor, not to the most accessible, but to the most neglected, parts of the fortification. Raymond's tower was reduced to ashes by the fire of the besieged, but his colleague was more vigilant and successful; the enemies were driven by his archers from the rampart; the draw-bridge was let down; and on a Friday, at three in the afternoon, the day and hour of the passion, Godfrey of Bouillon stood victorious on the walls of Jerusalem.—*Gibbon's Decline and Fall*, chap. lviiii.

one vast mad-house. Women and children insisted upon taking part in what was expected to be little less than the annihilation of the Moslem power. Horrible were the sufferings entailed and utter was the failure of the movement. After an ineffectual siege of Damascus the shattered remnants straggled back to Europe, demoralized to the last degree. The most stupendous delusion of all the ages was at an end, yet not at an end, for just forty years later began the third Crusade, which lasted three years. That renewal of hostilities between Cross and Crescent was occasioned by the fall of the kingdom of Jerusalem, which terminated in 1187. The mighty Saladin, who reasonably aspired to universal Mohammedan empire, drove the Christians from the sacred city. That aroused the indignation of Frederick Barbarossa of Germany, Philip Augustus of France and Richard Cœur de Leon of England. Their efforts were not wholly fruitless. They could not restore Christian rule, but they forced from Saladin a treaty exempting from taxes and special peril Christian pilgrims to the Holy Sepulcher, and so numerous were these palmers, as the pilgrims were called, that this treaty was highly important.

In 1203 Pope Innocent III. tried to organize still another crusade. A slight beginning was made at Venice, but the movement was abortive. The fourth Crusade was a peculiarly tragic attempt of about 30,000 boys just entering their teens, and hardly that, to rescue the sepulcher of Jesus from infidel hands. These lads were led by a shepherd boy, Stephen of Vendome. They set sail by ship from Marseilles, intending to reach Palestine. Two of their seven ships were wrecked. Those who escaped the perils of the sea landed at Egypt, but only to be sold into slavery. By some writers that melancholy episode is called the fourth Crusade. Others apply that designation to the expedition of Andrew of Hungary, organized in 1217. He took a few Moslem fortresses on Mount Tabor, but in the second year of his expedition gave up and came home.

For ten years only did the world have rest from Crusades. The fifth one was organized in 1228 by Frederick II. of Germany. After ten years of fighting and diplomacy a treaty was entered into between the Sultan of Egypt and the German Emperor, by which the latter acquired Palestine, and returned home with some substantial acquisitions to show as the fruit of his expedition. But in 1248 came the Turk, who besieged, captured and pillaged Jerusalem. Louis IX. of France, called St. Louis, tried to drive back the barbaric infidel, but was taken prisoner by the Sultan of Egypt, who was finally prevailed upon in 1250 to accept a ransom for his royal captive.

The last of the Crusades dates from 1270 to 1272. St. Louis began it, but he soon died, and the leadership fell upon Edward of England. No progress was made, however, toward dispossessing the Turks. For more than two centuries longer the idea of rescuing the Holy Sepulcher from the Moslems was cherished as the dream of popes and devotees. The new world with its diversions put an end to all thoughts of an eighth Crusade.

The Island of Malta acquired considerable prominence in the conflict between the Mohammedans and the Christians. Solyman the Magnificent, in furtherance of his scheme to annex Hungary to his empire, and extend Islamism to Western Europe, captured the island of Rhodes in 1521, wresting it from the Knights of St. John, who had held it undisputed since their retreat from Palestine. The knights retired from Rhodes to the Island of Malta, which was bestowed upon them by Charles V. of Germany. They fortified it, and that so well, that when in 1565 Solyman attempted its capture he was baffled.

One name towers so high during this black period as to be immortal and illustrious. We do not refer to any of the brave knights and princes who won renown in the holy wars, but to Charlemagne, the emperor who will come before us somewhat in detail later, but who, because he made all Europe bow before his throne, deserves conspicuous attention. Without touching upon subsequent history, it may be said of him here, that he had the genius to create an empire, but not to transmit it. Under him the Franks and the Teutons were united, his dominion embracing nearly all Europe, except the savage North. Pope Leo III., in the year A. D. 800, placed the imperial crown upon the head of this Alexander of medieval times. A rude and almost literally unlettered barbarian, he gathered about him the learning of every land, founded schools, collected libraries, and in many ways sought to elevate the character of the people. His ideas were grand, but they availed little. Europe was not soil prepared

for the seed he sowed, and much of it bore no fruit. Charles the Great was a monster of vice, licentious, cruel and superstitious. He pronounced the death penalty against those who refused Christian baptism, or ate meat in Lent. He was a strange mixture of greatness and weakness, of iron and clay. Hallam says: "In the Dark Ages of European history, the reign of Charlemagne affords a solitary resting-place between two long periods of turbulence and ignominy, deriving the advantage of contrast both from that of the preceding dynasty and of a posterity for whom he had formed an empire which they were unworthy and unequal to maintain."

MALTA.

In a literary point of view, the Dark Ages can boast only one or two great names. Dante is a poet whose fantastic visions of heaven, purgatory and hell, will always be the admiration of mankind. Chaucer was a true poet also, but he was the morning star of imaginative modern literature, rather than a distinctive part of medieval times. Several names may be mentioned here, such as Petrarch, Boccaccio and Abelard, but with the one exception of Dante, all the distinctively medieval literature might be obliterated without so great a loss as one play of Euripides or oration of Cicero.

There sprung up during that period a class of minstrels called minnesingers, troubadours, and troviers, who rendered important service to the art of poetry, although not one of them all composed any great or immortal verse, but they sang of love and war, of heaven and passion, in strains which fired the medieval heart and gave character to subsequent poetic expression. In themselves considered, those songs and ballads may be set down as of little worth, while in their influence upon real genius of a later period they were invaluable.

Singular as it may seem, the most important link connecting the Dark Ages with modern times is witchcraft. That phase of human experience belongs almost wholly to the historical in distinction from the actual world. Traces of it may be found

in the remote past, and perhaps in the present, but as a prominent factor in the affairs of men it was developed during the medieval period, finding its fullest life, however, during the stages of early Protestantism, being peculiar to no church or country.

The translators of the King James version of the Bible were so full of this belief that the law of Moses against poisoning was rendered by them, "Thou shalt not suffer a witch [instead of a *poisoner*] to live." And the woman of Endor who was consulted by King Saul was evidently a spiritualistic medium, and not at all a witch, in any proper sense of the term. There is no doubt a close connection between ancient magic, divination, astrology and necromancy, and medieval witchcraft; but the latter term stands for a distinctive form of the unnatural, the abnormal and the mysterious, which was not regarded so much as supernatural as sub-natural, originating with the fiends of the world below.

In 1484 Pope Innocent VIII. issued a bull against witchcraft, and commissioned the Inquisitor Sprenger to extirpate it. He put to death hundreds every year, and always and everywhere the more vigorous the prosecution, the more prevalent the mania—for such it was. Insanity was mistaken for demoniac possession. From first to last, tens if not hundreds of thousands must have fallen victims to this terrible delusion, the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries being the worst in this respect of all. Lecky tells us that the first appearance of the conception of a witch dates from the twelfth century. He describes a witch as "a woman who had entered into a deliberate compact with Satan, who was endowed with the powers of working miracles whenever she pleased, and who was continually transported through the air [generally on a broomstick] to the Sabbath, where she paid her homage to the Evil One. The panic created by this belief advanced slowly, but after a time with a fearfully accelerated rapidity. Thousands of victims were sometimes burnt alive in a few years. Every country in Europe was stricken with the wildest panic. Hundreds of the ablest judges were selected for the extirpation of the crime. A vast literature was created on the subject, and it was not until a considerable portion of the eighteenth century had passed away that the executions finally ceased."

After giving many details of witchcraft in many lands, this same writer, the highest authority upon the subject, observes: "Witchcraft resulted, not from isolated circumstances, but from modes of thought; it grew out of a certain intellectual temperature acting on certain theological tenets, and reflected with almost startling vividness each great intellectual change. Arising amid the ignorance of an early civilization, it was quickened into an intenser life by a theological struggle which allied terrorism with credulity, and it declined under the influence of that great rationalistic movement which since the seventeenth century has been on all sides encroaching on theology." In no other country did it rage so furiously and persistently as in Scotland.

That famous English Puritan, Richard Baxter, whose "Saints' Rest" is one of the classics of religious literature, was an intense believer in the reality of witchcraft, and the duty of its extirpation. His writings on this subject did much to stimulate the mania in primitive Massachusetts known as Salem Witchcraft, in the last years of the seventeenth century. The last execution of a witch in Europe occurred in Switzerland in 1782, and the last law against witchcraft, the Irish statute, was not repealed until 1821. It was in 1768 that John Wesley wrote plaintively, "The English in general, and indeed most of the men of learning in Europe, have given up all accounts of witches and apparitions as old wives' fables. I am sorry for it, and I willingly take this opportunity to enter my solemn protest against this violent compliment which so many who believe the Bible pay to those who do not believe it. I owe them no such service. I take knowledge that these are at the bottom of the outcry which has been raised, and with such insolence spread through the land in direct opposition, not only to the Bible, but to the suffrage of the wisest and best men of all ages and nations. They well know (whether Christians know it or not) that the giving up witchcraft is in effect giving up the Bible." A delusion which could call out from such a man such a declaration as late as 1768, may well be called the deepest-rooted and most tenacious of all the poison-plants of the Dark Ages.

THE SARACEN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

MEDIEVAL IN ORIGIN AND GLORY—THE TERM SARACEN—MOHAMMED'S EARLY DAYS AND ASSOCIATIONS—MECCA AND MEDINA—DEATH OF THE PROPHET AND SKETCH OF HIS WORK—THE STRENGTH OF ISLAM—THE GREAT EMPIRES OF A THOUSAND YEARS AGO—MOHAMMEDAN MORALS—THE KORAN—THE CALIPHATE AND THE OMMIAD DYNASTY—SPREAD OF EMPIRE—CONSTANTINOPLE—DIVISION OF THE SARACEN EMPIRE—FALL OF THE EMPIRE—THE SARACENS AND MODERN CIVILIZATION—SARACENIC GLORY AND ITS ECLIPSE.

OF all the powers and principalities of earth, whether temporal or spiritual, none are or were so distinctively medieval as that strange mixture of the flesh, the spirit and the devil, called the Saracen Empire. It may, indeed, be said to have had its root in the far-away days of Abraham and Hagar, but from Ishmael to Mohammed, the root hardly put forth a shoot of real nationality, and Saracenic glory, which began with the prophet of Mecca, was dimmed by the dawning of modern civilization, to which, indeed, it made some valuable contributions. The term Saracen is found in classic literature occasionally. As used by the old writers, it applies to a particular tribe of Arabs and one of no special importance either. But in these later centuries, it is often used to designate all the followers of Mohammed, more properly, however, those who constituted the nation founded by the prophet of Islam. It was not an orderly, regular and well-defined empire, but in part an area and in part an idea; a curious hybrid, half ambition and half fanaticism. To get an idea of it one must first of all form a just conception of Mohammed, his surroundings and genius.

MOHAMMED.

Mohammed was born at Mecca, in "Araby the Blest," April 20, A. D. 571. That city was the center of trade between Africa and India, carried on by caravans of camels. He belonged to one of the first families, and was himself engaged in the mercantile and transportation business. Although aristocratic in connection and blood, his immediate family was quite poor. Besides traveling and trading, he spent some time, as did that other greater founder of a nation, Moses, in tending flocks. While yet obscure, he married Kadijah, a rich widow, and instead of giving himself up to fast living, he devoted his time to religious meditation, the develop-

ment of those ideas which were destined to make him immortal, and for which he was largely indebted to Christians he had met while a commercial traveler. Like many another genius, he claimed to have derived his inspiration from some supernatural source. Mohammed was twenty-four years of age when he began this novel proceeding.

The Arabs claimed descent from Abraham through that servant-girl whom "the father of the faithful" drove into the wilderness with her son Ishmael. They worshiped one God, but stood in mortal terror of the devil, and were tinctured somewhat with idolatry. A few of them were Christians, but for the most part they held to the old worship with a half-dazed loyalty to ancestral ideas. Judaism was embraced by many. The Arabs were in a state of religious fermentation. Mohammed began to preach in 609. He had epileptic fits and conceived himself to be under some sort of spiritualistic influence. He was wont to retire to a cave for prayer and communion of soul. His townsmen paid no heed to him, or if they did, ridiculed his pretensions, but his motherly wife had unbounded confidence in his claims, fully sharing his belief that his abnormal experiences were divine favors and not the result of physical and mental disorder.

PILGRIMS GOING TO MECCA.

His public career as a preacher or prophet began in 612. He was banished and his believers compelled to seek safety from the mob in flight. After three years he was allowed to return to Mecca and resume his preaching of the doctrine of one God, for monotheism was about all there was to his original doctrine. He made some converts, especially among merchants or "traveling men," from the city of Medina. In 619 his first convert and good wife died. He mourned deeply, but not as one who refuseth to be comforted, as he married several other wives, eventually establishing an extensive harem. The famous Hegira occurred September 20, 622. That was the flight of the prophet and his followers from Mecca to Medina, two hundred and fifty miles north. The Mohammedan era dates from that flight, as the Christian era does from the birth of Jesus. At Medina he built a mosque and set about establishing a distinct religion on a large scale. Hitherto he had aimed at reformation rather than substitution. Not making very satisfactory progress by moral suasion, he appealed to the sword and war was declared against surrounding tribes, Jews and Christians. In 623 he was successful in a battle with the Meccans, and later had some reverses, but on the whole made very considerable progress, and secured quite favorable terms of peace in 628. About this time the sword-bearing prophet opened negotiations with foreign oriental courts and began to be a notable person in Arabia. The Meccans did not observe the terms of peace, and in the next campaign he succeeded in capturing the city. In 632 he made his last great pilgrimage to Mecca, this time attended by an army of forty thousand and a seraglio of ten wives (he had fourteen in all). In June of that year the prophet died at Medina, leaving no son to reap what he had sown, his only child being Fatima, the wife of Ali, of whom we shall speak later.

At the death of this most remarkable man, his

followers were without a leader, and the religion he founded might well have been thought to be in a very precarious condition, and no one certainly could have indulged a dream of splendid empire for his disciples. But to-day those disciples number nearly two hundred millions, occupying southeastern Europe, southwestern Asia, and the northern half of Africa, while the magnificent empire which he founded fills a large place in history; both religion and empire having always had for corner-stone and inspirational belief the simple declaration, "There is no God but God, and Mohammed is his prophet."

The real strength of Islam was in these two ideas; first, the time of one's death is immutably fixed; second, heaven is the reward of the brave soldier of the Crescent, and hell the destiny of the coward. Mohammed and his immediate successors were able to muster armies of actual believers in these two ideas. If one were fully convinced of the truth of those ideas, he would be undismayed by danger and afraid of nothing but cowardice. His bravery would be in proportion to the completeness of his faith. In the entire history of mankind there was never an army imbued with convictions so peculiarly favorable to the martial spirit as were the disciples of Islam. The heaven and the hell of Mohammedanism are not dim and shadowy. On the contrary, the heaven promised was just such a paradise as the voluptuous oriental nature would most ardently long for. The angels were not harpists without passion or sex, but beauteous young women, all smiles and tenderness, while hell was torture, veritable, physical, endless and most excruciating. So long as the natural reason of the Saracen could be blindfolded by his religion he was absolutely invincible in arms. But such preposterous notions cannot hold absolute sway always. Gradually the Saracen came to feel at heart, whatever his surface belief, that life is worth living, and that to throw it away on an uncertainty would be foolish. The original zeal and faith of the Mohammedans could not survive after the first heat of novelty had cooled off.

At the time Mohammed was born, there were two powerful empires and emperors, Justin II., who ruled at Constantinople over the Byzantine Empire, and Koshroes II., King of Persia. The Byzantine possessions in Asia consisted of Asia Minor, Syria, part of Armenia, Southeastern Persia, extended over a vast and illy defined Eastern territory and as far west as the Mediterranean and Ægean seas. In one of these empires Christ was worshiped; in the other Zoroaster was revered as the great teacher of religion. Mohammed saw in both religious idolatry, and boldly did his Saracens attack both. The Arabian peninsula lay on the confines of both empires, and the desert was the impregnable wall of protection from both.

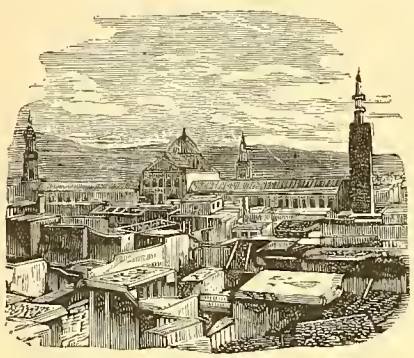
The Arabs were greatly improved in morals by Mohammedanism. They had been much given to drunkenness and gambling, but Mohammed radically and permanently cured them of both. His disciples have always remained true to his teachings on temperance. It is only fair to add that Mohammed did more for the cause of temperance than all other reformers in that line combined have ever been able to accomplish. Those who see in drunkenness the supreme curse of Christendom must be tempted to regret the failure of the Saracens, and later the Moors and Turks, to overrun and possess Europe. Mohammed did something to lessen the social vice of his people. The old Arabs were grossly licentious. He did indeed allow a man to be the husband of four wives, but that was a restriction as compared with previous practices, and some improvement upon irregular libertinism.

The Koran, which he pretended to receive by the inspiration of God, is held in the greatest possible veneration by his disciples. It is a jumble of precepts and statements, without method and often without sense. It cannot be summarized. As Canon Kingsley said of it, "After all, the Koran is not a book, but an irregular collection of Mohammed's meditations and notes for sermons." It is neither a creed, a code, a diary nor a history. It is a scrap-book of odds and ends put together some time after the prophet's death by Abu-Bekr. The Saracen's faith, however, requires the acceptance of the Koran as the gift of God through Mohammed to man, of an eternal, uncreated, perfect and all-sufficient revelation.

Every true Moslem believer has always held that the Caliph or Vicar of the prophet was the lawful lord of the world, but the prophet died without appointing a successor. It was expected that the husband of his only child would be appointed for the succession, but Mohammed's favorite wife, Ayesha,

defeated this, and brought in her father, Abu-Bekr. The first four Caliphs belong to a distinct period. They were, to name them in their order, Abu-Bekr, Omar, Othman and Ali; the one who should have been first being last. The selection was by no defined method, but made in a hap-hazard way. For twelve years after the death of Mohammed—632 to 644—the Saracens were harmonious, and swift was the march of empire. Persia fell, and the Eastern empire tottered and was shorn of her oriental provinces. As if by magic, the Saracen empire rose to pre-eminence. Jerusalem, Antioch and the regions round about accepted the Crescent. The wealth of Persia and Syria were emptied into the coffers of Abu-Bekr, but he used it only for the cause of Islam. His personal habits were simple in the extreme. Medina was the first capital. It was afterwards located respectively at Damascus and Bagdad.

The accession of Ali was the signal for the first real dissensions, and vain were all his endeavors to reconcile the factions. He died at the hand of an assassin, and his rival, Moswijah, succeeded him. The latter founded an hereditary dynasty, one which lasted in the East a century, and in Spain, to which it was driven, nearly three centuries more. It was called the Ommiad dynasty.



The great Mosque of Damascus.

The motto of the conquering Saracens was, "Koran, tribute or sword," and so fierce were their onslaughts, that the Koran was generally preferred to the sword, or even to tribute. On the very year of the prophet's death, the invasion of both empires was begun, and nothing could resist the fanatics who saw in the spirit-land houris beckoning the brave to bliss. Egypt fell without a blow almost, glad of an excuse to change masters, and Syria was subjugated in six years. The northern portion of Africa, called Latin Africa, withstood the Crescent sixty years, but finally Cæsar and Christ were both displaced on the dark continent by Mohammed.

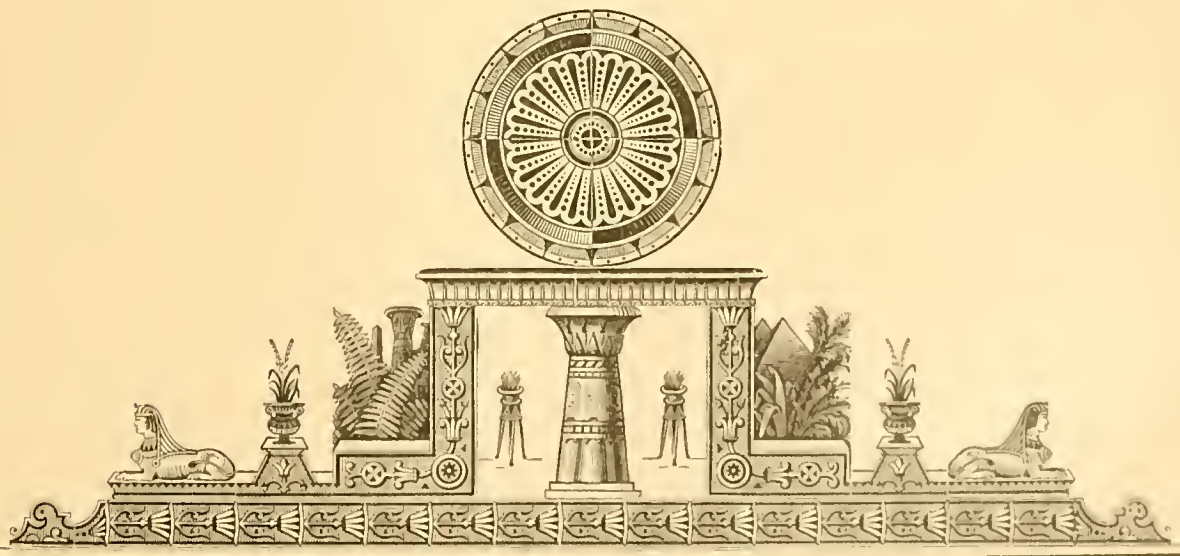
Early in the eighth century the Ommiad sway was extended to India, hitherto independent of both Russian and Persian despotism, and unacquainted with Moses and Jesus. In 710 the Oxus was crossed and India subjected to the encroachments of the Saracens. The religion of the desert seemed to be very well adapted to the wants and tastes of the Hindoos, and now began the conversion of those terrible Moslems, the subjects of the Grand Turk and of the Great Mogul. A Saracenic province between the Oxus and the Jaxartes developed later into what Freeman calls "the region whence issued in future ages the warriors who planted the standard of Islam on the banks of the Ganges and the shores of the Adriatic, the proud Mogul of India and the terrible and abiding Ottoman of Europe." It was not long before the will of the Caliph was supreme from the remote Jaxartes to the Atlantic, a reach of empire beyond the dream of Alexander or Cæsar.

But there was one mighty rock which said to the Saracen, "Thus far shalt thou go and no farther, and here shall thy proud waves be staid." That was Constantinople. From the first it had been especially coveted. Repeated efforts to capture it were made to no avail. The first siege was in 673. In 711 the opportune moment seemed to have arrived. That year the Justinian dynasty became extinct at Constantinople, and the Caliphat at Damascus attained its utmost extent. But the city withstood the shock. Six years later another Saracen army laid siege to Constantinople, but to no purpose. The Caliphate never won the golden prize. The city of Constantine remained the capital of the Roman, or Greek, or Byzantine empire until a fiercer race of Mohammedans than the Saracens besieged it, namely, the Turks, or Ottomans, in 1453.

When the Ommiad dynasty fell (750) the Caliphate was divided, nevermore to be joined together. From that time the Crescent was no longer the horned ensign of a united empire. During the Crusades all believers in the Koran were exhorted to join in war against the believers in the Bible, each branding the other as Infidels, and there was much the same unity under one standard as the other. Nothing approaching political autonomy was secured under either the Cross or the Crescent. Henceforth the followers of Islam were divided into sects or nationalities, hostile to each other, much as Christians were and are. To follow these frag-

ments in their jargonic details would be foreign to the purposes of this volume. The Eastern Saracens had Bagdad for their capital, the Western, Cordova in Spain. Of the Moors, the Turks and the Tartars, all in a certain sense Saracens, we shall have occasion to speak more specifically in connection with Spain, Turkey and Russia. The warfare in any religious sense between the Cross and Crescent was continued until Ferdinand and Isabella, the patrons of Columbus, conquered the Moors, or Saracens, in Spain, their only foothold in the Western Empire. It was then felt that the disgrace of the fall of Constantinople had been offset, and the blood of unholy Holy Wars, was washed from Cross and Crescent forever. There has been some prejudice in the sanguinary discussion of the "Eastern question," but no war on that distinctive issue. The fall of the Saracen empire might be placed at the overthrow of the Ommiad dynasty, or it might be said to still survive wherever Mohammed is revered as Allah's prophet; but it would, perhaps, be more proper still to say, that as the Turk planted himself at Constantinople, and the Great Mogul in India, the Saracen empire gradually faded into one or the other, and became indistinguishable and finally extinct.

Much has been said in these later years of the indebtedness of modern civilization to the Saracens. There is just enough truth in the claims set up to entitle the subject to some consideration. The Arabs were not inventors or originators of anything. Even the numerals which bear their name were borrowed by them from India. They were judicious appropriators and zealous propagators. They learned a great deal from all the peoples whom they subjugated. They cultivated a native literature rich in sentimental poetry and stories, and studied with avidity physical and metaphysical science as taught by and embraced in classic literature. No people ever held literary excellence in higher repute, a fact of vast importance in stimulating letters. In astronomy, medicine, logic and the arts, useful and ornamental, the Saracens were far in advance of the Christians of medieval Europe. In the blackness of the Dark Ages the abundant scholarship of the Saracens was largely instrumental in rescuing from destruction the wisdom and writings of the ancients. It did vastly more in this regard than did the sparse learning of the Christian monasteries, and for that service at least, if for no other particular reason, the civilization of to-day should hold the Crescent in grateful memory.



THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE THREE EMPIRES OF THE EAST—BYZANTIUM—THE EMPIRE ESTABLISHED—ITS AREA AND CONSERVATISM—JUSTINIAN AND BELISARIUS—JUSTINIAN AND THE CIVIL LAW—LEO III. AND THE ICONOCLASTS—BAZIL AND HIS DYNASTY—THE COMNENIANS AND THE LATIN CRUSADERS—PALÆOLOGI AND THE TURKS—THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE AND EUROPE.

IT is now time to revert to the Eastern portion of the divided Roman Empire, generally known as the Byzantine Empire. Following streams of intelligence which had their origin in the Eternal City, or were so closely connected with Rome and Italy as to demand attention before taking leave of the city of the seven hills, we have traveled a long way from Constantinople and the empires of the East. Beginning with the offshoot of Rome, following with the medieval, which was finally swallowed up by the third empire, we shall see that these three members of this historical family of nations, the Byzantine, the Saracen and the Ottoman empires, sustain peculiarly intimate relations to each other.

Some seven centuries and a half before the Christian era, a Greek colony established a city upon the Thracian Bosphorus, on the site of the Modern Constantinople. It was called Byzantium. It was a thrifty commercial town, and that is about all that can be said of it, never acquiring any real importance in history. A thousand years after its establishment, Constantine the Great saw its geographical advantages as the capital of a great empire of inter-continental importance, and gave to it a new name and a new destiny. That was in the year 330. Then, for the first time, that now historic spot became worthy the attention of history. There was no Byzantine history of any importance until Byzantium ceased to exist.

But it was still later before the Byzantine empire came into being. Constantine made his metropolitan namesake the capital of the undivided Roman empire. That empire was definitely divided by Theodosius the Great in the year 395, when the emperor assigned the western portion to his son Honorius, and the eastern to the elder brother, Arcadius. This eastern empire, sometimes called the Greek, sometimes the Eastern, and sometimes the Byzantine, proved the great conservator during the medieval ages, of both Greek and Roman civilization.

While nearly all Europe was in the throes of a new life, and the rude barbarism of the North and West was amalgamating with the culture of the old world, thus forming a Modern Europe, there stood upon the Bosphorus a mighty city which preserved Roman law and Greek literature until such time as the West had fairly started upon the highway of modern progress. The Byzantine empire was the great conservator of the past, while

the present was being evolved. The civil institutions were Roman; the language employed, Greek.

This medieval empire comprised, substantially, modern Turkey, Greece and Egypt. Sometimes the area was extended, sometimes contracted, according to the fortunes of war. The imperial crown was elective, and more than one great military hero found the army a stepping-stone to the throne. Owing to the natural strength of Constantinople, it was easy to defend it against assault. It is said to have withstood no less than twenty sieges. The extent of its domain varied frequently, but for centuries, lost territory was generally recovered. The empire cared little for increase of domain, but was peculiarly tenacious in the maintenance of its natural ancient boundaries. It was the object of envious attack on all sides, and to hold its own was quite enough, and, as it proved, even more than could be accomplished permanently.

THE MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE.

The first Byzantine emperor of renown was Justinian. His uncle, Justin, had come to the throne early in the sixth century, rising from a Thracian shepherd lad to the imperial purple, through military genius. Justin was the David of the dynasty, and his nephew its Solomon. From 527 to 565, Justinian wore the imperial crown. It was a splendid reign. By him was erected the magnificent edifice, the cathedral, now Mosque of St. Sophia. In the field he had the services of Belisarius, who ranks with Hannibal, Marlborough and Wellington, if not with Alexander, Cæsar and Napoleon. Belisarius lived to experience the cruel ingratitude of the government he had served so well. Tradition represents him as a blind beggar in his old age. He gained splendid victories over the Persians in the East, the Vandals in Africa, the Goths in Italy, and insurgents at home; but he was never popular with the beautiful but vicious queen Theodora, and his misfortunes were due to her machinations.

Justinian enriched his empire with the spoils of conquered nations, and still more by the development of manufactures, agriculture and commerce. But the great glory of this illustrious reign was neither military, industrial nor commercial. It was legal. That grandest of all monuments to and embodiments of the science of law, *Corpus Juris Civilis*, constitutes his highest claim to the gratitude of the world. That work is the Roman code, revised and edited by a corps of able lawyers, with Tribonian as editor-in-chief. It consists of four parts, the Pandects or Digest; the Code; the Institutes, and the Novells, or supplemental edicts. It was some five hundred years before the stupendous work became known to the nations west of the Byzantine empire, but for several centuries it has formed and still forms the basis of jurisprudence all over the continent of Europe. England has always had a common law peculiar to itself, and France is mainly guided in legal matters by the Code Napoleon, but the civil law, as expounded in the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, is to the rest of Europe what Blackstone's Commentaries are to English jurisprudence.

In 718 Leo III. ascended the Byzantine throne. With him began the reign of the Iconoclasts. For about one century there raged a fierce controversy over the worship of images. The priests and the peasantry clung to this species of idolatry, while the government sternly opposed it. Iconoclasm was, however, a pretext quite as much as the real cause

of contention. Behind the images was the issue of church or state, the priesthood seeking to subordinate the temporal power, and the latter to hold the clergy in due subordination. The Greek church never attained to the power of the church of Rome. Leo was the emperor for more than twenty years, and he succeeded in giving the secular arm authority enough to maintain its ascendancy ever after.

Next to Justinian, the greatest name in the annals of the Byzantine empire, is that of Bazil the Macedonian. He ascended the throne in 867. Many reforms and improvements in the government date from this reign. A new version of the laws was made, and the revenue system of the nation greatly simplified. His son, Leo IV., made what proved to be the fatal mistake of calling the Turks to his aid in resisting the attacks of the Saracens. The seed then and thus sown bore fruit in the overthrow of both the Byzantine and Saracen empires.

For ninety years the Bazilian dynasty held the scepter. Then it became extinct, and Isaac Comnenus was raised to the throne by the unanimous vote of the army. He was worthy the high trust. For two years he ruled the empire, when he retired to a monastery. His son Alexis took the place he vacated, and his dynasty furnished six emperors in succession. The Comnenians held sway until 1204, when Constantinople was taken for the first time. The conquerors were a small army of French and Venetian crusaders called Latins. They were actuated in a large measure by religious fanaticism, the adherents of Rome being hardly less hostile to the Greek church than to Islam. Having Constantinople, they had the entire empire, which they proceeded to divide into four parts. The capital fell to the lot of Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and he was recognized as emperor by his associates.

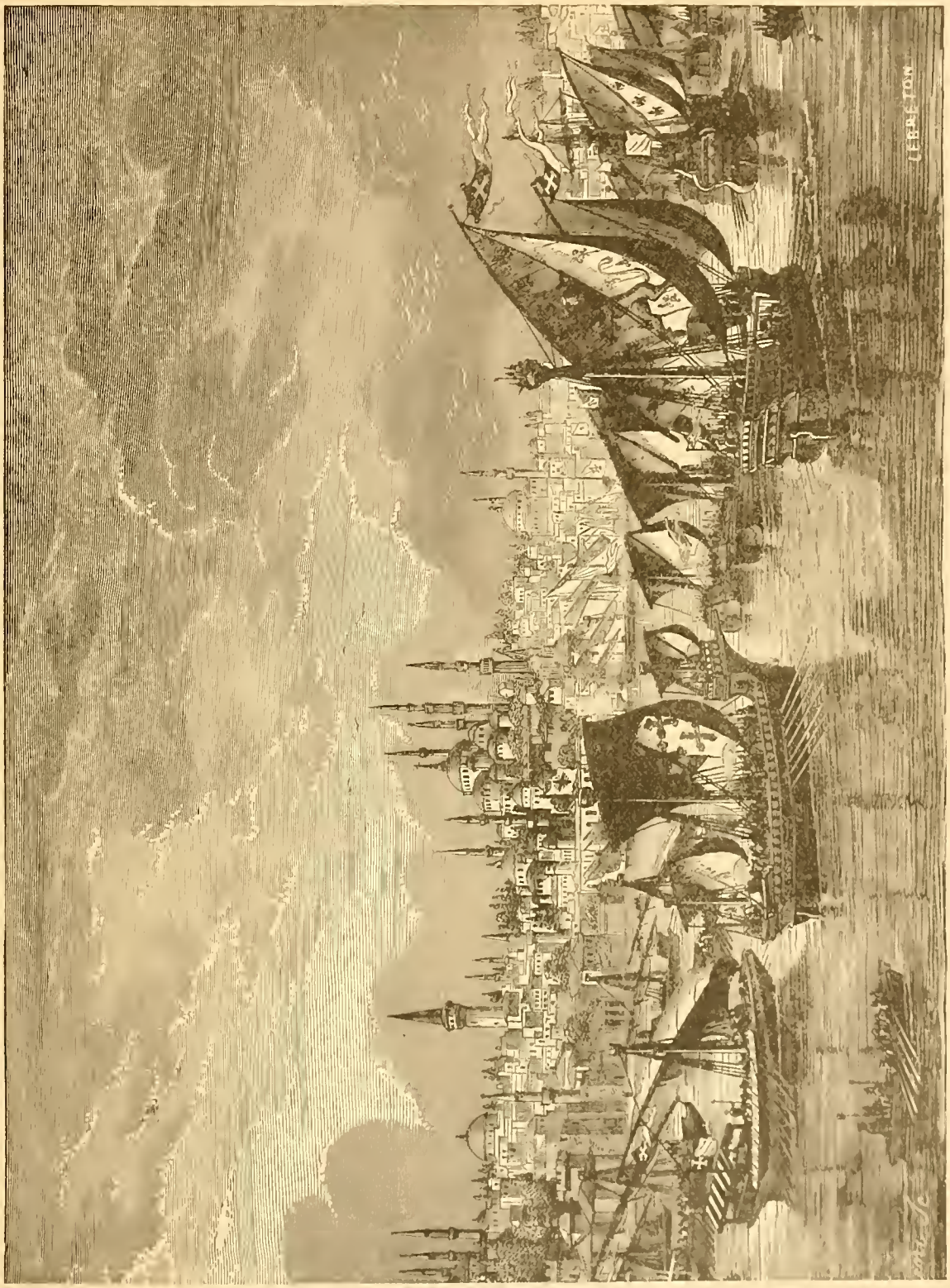
The vanquished descendants of Isaac Comnenus retired to the city of Trebizond, in Asiatic Turkey, and there established a kingdom which maintained its independence until 1461, when the Turks conquered and annexed it. Baldwin found his position a difficult one to hold. The Bulgarians were very hostile, and anarchy at home supplemented Slavic or Christian hostilities. In 1206 he was taken prisoner by the Bulgarians and died. His brother Henry took the reins of government and held them six years. He was a brave and able man, but his reign was none the less a sorry failure.

In 1261 began the dynasty of the Palæologi, which was a restoration of the Greeks, and continued until the overthrow of the empire. The first emperor of this line was Michael VIII., who was indebted to the alliance of the Genoese for his crown. He was an able and patriotic man, but he made one egregious mistake. He tried to unite the Greek and Roman churches. Such a union would have been in substance the triumph of the papacy. By that policy he excited the intense animosity of the clergy and the common people.

During the reign of Michael's great-grandson, Andronicus, who ascended the throne in 1328, the Turks made very serious inroads upon the territory of the empire. Two important towns, Nicæa and Nicomedia, were captured by them, and the coast of what is known as Turkey in Europe was devastated. From this time forward, the invaders made rapid strides. In 1362 the Sultan Amurath made Adrianople his capital; a city founded by the emperor Hadrian, one hundred and thirty miles west from Constantinople. From that vantage-ground the Ottoman waged almost incessant war against the key city of two continents.

The last of the Greek emperors, Constantine IX., was wise, brave and patriotic, but the empire had been so enfeebled by despotism and was so palsied by age that it could not withstand the shock of barbarism, and fell, all the efforts of Christian allies, which were very considerable, being unavailing. By this time, nearly the middle of the fifteenth century, the papacy recognized the importance, from a Christian point of view, of keeping the Mohammedans from gaining possession of the key city of both Europe and Asia. Hungary and Poland responded to the pope's appeal to succor beleaguered Constantinople, but Germany, France and England stood aloof from the conflict upon the Bosphorus. In the summer of 1453 the city was captured and Constantine XIII., the last of the Byzantine Emperors, died sword in hand. In this siege cannons were first used upon a large scale.

The death of the Byzantine empire was the birth of the present Ottoman empire, and where the history of one ceases that of the other begins. Upon the ruins of the one great Christian empire of the middle ages, rose the Turkey of to-day, a power which upholds the Crescent, and in that respect is the heir and successor of the Saracen empire, to



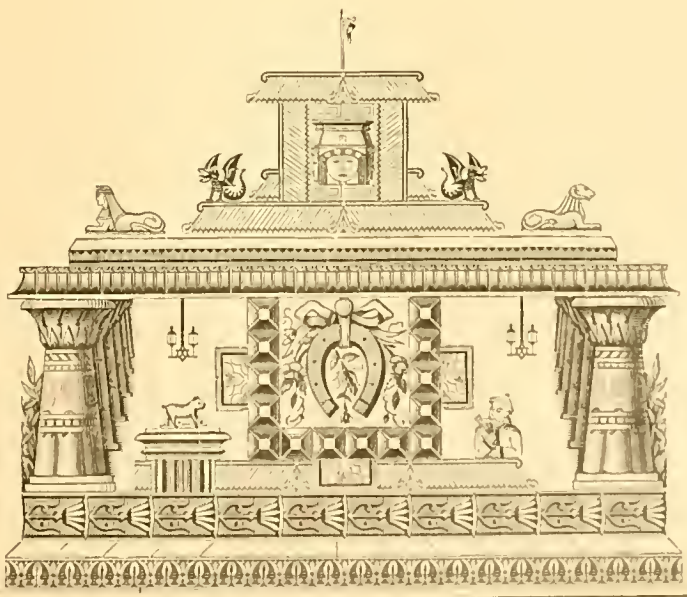
ARRIVAL OF THE CRUSADERS' FLEET BEFORE CONSTANTINOPLE.

which, however, in attitude towards science and literature, it has no resemblance, the Ottoman having always been hostile to civilization.

The fall of Constantinople was deeply deplored by Christian Europe as the lamentable triumph of Mohammedanism, but it proved an inestimable blessing to the West. Driven into exile, many of the Byzantine scholars and artisans traveled westward, taking their knowledge and skill with them. They accomplished great results. The West was prepared to profit by their higher civilization. These new teachers taught law and theology to the ignorant, and useful arts to the idle. The germs of the Renaissance and the Reformation were sown in the lands covered with the blackness of the Dark Ages by the refugees from Constantinople. What the Moors accomplished in Southwestern Europe, the Byzantines wrought in Central and Eastern Europe. In a word, Constantinople was a vast grain-bin, and when the storehouse fell, much of the seed fell upon fallow ground, much of which ground had never before been reclaimed and made fruitful.

Byzantine art is a distinct and important school of architecture and ornamentation, developed by the artists of that empire out of Christian symbolism. Says an eminent writer upon the historical development of art, "During the Dark Ages, after Rome had been conquered by the Goths and Huns, and the fine arts had been nearly extinguished by the influx of barbarism, many Western artists retired to Constantinople, and founded a school by which the traditions of antique and classical art were cherished and modified by whatever was new and peculiar in the Christian system. The great features of this style are the circle and dome, the round arch, and all the various details of form which are derived from the lily, the cross, the nimbus, and other symbols." Besides the Mosque of St. Sophia, may be mentioned St. Mark's Cathedral at Venice as specimens of Byzantine architecture. All that is truly artistic and sublime in Russian structures may also be claimed as Byzantine.

The fall of this empire no more overthrew the Greek church than the banishment of the Popes from the Vatican would destroy the Roman church; but it greatly weakened the authority of the Patriarch of Constantinople, and prepared the way for Peter the Great to adopt for Russia a strictly national church without incurring, as Henry the Eighth of England did in adopting the same policy, the wrath and anathemas of the central head of the church. There was no Greek Empire, and so the Great Czar could substitute his Holy Synod for the patriarchy, and still be "orthodox." Herein the church of the Eastern Empire proved itself to be more liberal than the church of the Western Empire.



THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

TURKEY.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE SICK MAN OF THE EAST (TURKEY)—THE EMPIRE FOUNDED—ADRIANOPLE AND TAMERLANE—THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE AND ITS EFFECT—SOLYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT—DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE—SCHEME OF CATHARINE THE GREAT—STATE OF DEPENDENCE—RELIGION AND INTELLIGENCE IN TURKEY—PRESENT CONDITION OF THE EMPIRE—AREA, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, EDUCATION, RAILWAYS AND DEBT.

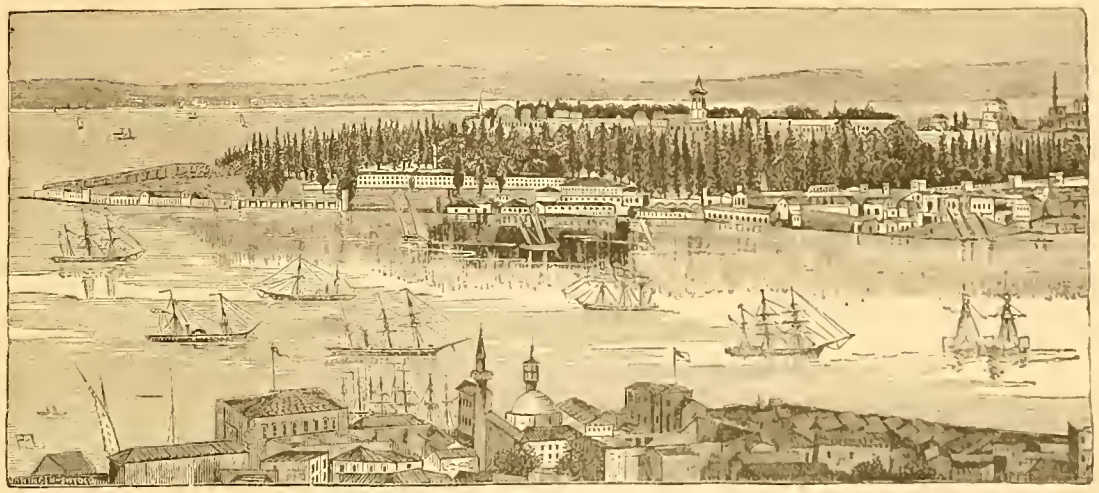
AT the confluence of the Mediterranean and the Black seas, where Constantine fixed his court and reared a city monumental of his name, and where Justinian held sway, now rules the "Sick Man." Never was there a more appropriate name for a government. The Ottoman empire, or Turkey, is strong only in weakness. It stands because the rest of Europe cannot afford to allow any really vigorous power to hold Constantinople. To set forth the historic and present relations of this burnt-out volcano, requires but few details.

The Ottoman empire, traced to its source, leads back to a tribe from the Altai mountains. The Ottoman career of conquest dates from 1330. About that time Orchan made successful sorties upon Necomedia and Nicola. He called the gate of his palace the Sublime Porte, and himself Padisha. Both titles are still in use, the former being frequently employed to designate the sovereign, or Sultan. His right arm in conquest was a band of soldiers known as Janizaries, a body of warriors which became virtually autocratic in later centuries, raising up and overthrowing Sultans at pleasure. They were finally destroyed early in the present century. They were the only Turkish approach to a regular nobility. The founder of the empire resided at Brussa. The second Sultan, Amurath I., made Adrianople his capital. That was in 1365, and that city remained the capital until Constantinople was conquered in 1453.

During that Adrianopolitan period, the Byzantine empire was not only overrun by a gradual process of conquest, but came in contact with that prodigy of valor and cruelty, Tamerlane, or Timar the Lame. He was the leader of a predatory band of Mongols. As a soldier Tamerlane may well claim the very highest rank. In 1360 he became the chief of his tribe, being then twenty-four years of age. He subjugated the whole of central and western Asia, from China to the sea, and from Siberia to the Ganges. In 1402 he met the Turks and completely routed them. His death, occurring three years later, saved China from invasion. He was destitute of statesmanship, and his conquests were mere raids, desolating but transitory in effect. As soon as nature could repair the wastes of his wars, all was restored. The Ottoman empire regained its vigor and never lost its identity. In less than a

generation it greatly humiliated the Byzantine empire, and in less than two generations the latter ceased to exit, having been supplanted by the former. It was Mohammed II. who transferred the seat of empire from Adrianople to Constantinople, the Turkish name for which is Stamboul.

The conqueror of Constantinople, as previously suggested, wrought a great work for Europe. The city was appropriated by Mohammed, and many of the people submitted to his rule, which was tolerant, but a large number of the better class fled from Islam as from the plague, taking their civilization with them westward.



SERAGLIO POINT, CONSTANTINOPLE.

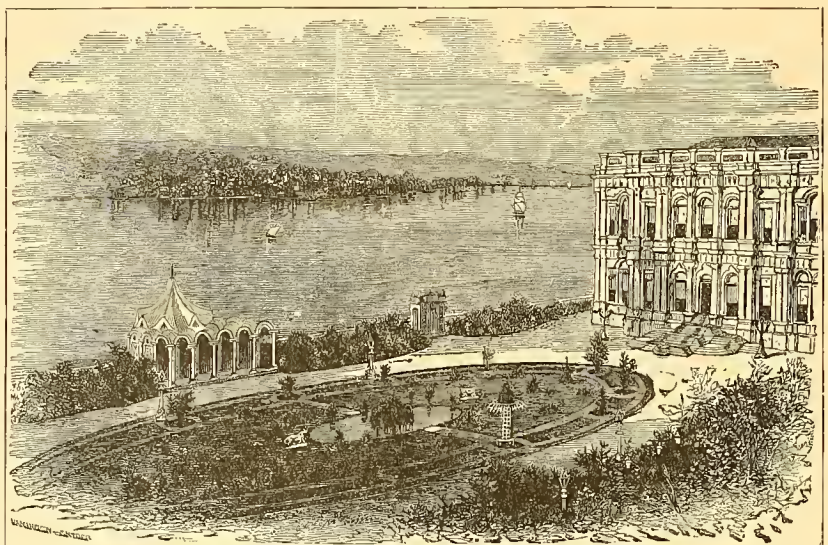
The capture of Constantinople was followed by other important victories of the Crescent in Eastern Europe. During the next hundred years the Ottoman empire attained the summit of its power, and Greece and Arabia were soon added to the domain of the Porte. The Saracen empire had crumbled away, and the Moors were being pushed out of Spain. The strength of Islam was this new kingdom of the Bosphorus.

It was under the third Sultan of Stamboul, Solyman the Magnificent, that the Ottoman empire reached its highest point of greatness. His rule extended from 1520 to 1566. He was a statesman with all which that implies. Educated, temperate, patriotic and philosophical, he had the fire and at times the ferocity of his race. He quelled insurrections and extended the area of the empire with facility, his ambition being to conquer Western Europe and establish the Crescent throughout the continent. For a time he seemed likely to succeed. The Knights of St. John were driven from Rhodes, the Hungarians beaten upon their own soil, and the way was thus opened for the success of his plan. But the Western nations were alarmed and alert. Solyman gained some advantages and extended the area of Turkey in Europe, also of Turkey in Africa, very materially, but his great ambition for European conquest was baffled. He died during a campaign in Hungary, and with his death the decline of the Ottoman empire began.

From that time until nearly the close of the eighteenth century, the Turk was the almost constant terror of his Christian neighbors. Russia, Hungary, Poland, Austria and Italy were frequently imbroiled in war with the Ottoman, and all Europe felt somewhat apprehensive of Crescent ascendancy. The records of those wars are monotonous and uninstructive, blood and misery being terms suggestive of the period. Late in the eighteenth century a great change was wrought. Catharine of Russia set her heart upon dividing Turkey with Austria, as she had Poland with Austria and Prussia, and waged relentless war in furtherance of this design. The rest of Europe had allowed a Christian country to be dismembered, and surely, she thought, would not

object to the expulsion of Islam from the continent. But that was a miscalculation. England and France became alarmed at the strides of Germany and Russia, especially the later, and when Turkey was at the mercy of the Hapsburg and the Romanoff, they interfered and secured for the Sultan terms of peace which substantially guaranteed the autonomy of the Ottoman empire.

From that time the Turk has retained his European foothold by the friendly interposition of the Anti-Russian powers. Not that the Ottoman appeals to the sympathy of those nations, but simply that so long as the Sultan of a people who have lost all aggressive ambition rules at Constantinople, the "balance of power" is safe. Turkey for the last century has simply been a mere puppet, moving as the great nations pull the string, and dependent for bare existence upon the sufferance born of mutual jealousy. Some show of independent action is kept up, but it is the veriest show in the world. Turkey is a charity empire, a monument of the sparing grace of its peculiar position. It admits of no division. That is, Constantinople does not admit of division, and its position is so very commanding, that the nations are not willing to have it added to the strength of any of their neighbors.



NEW PALACE OF THE SULTAN, CONSTANTINOPLE.

Such in its history and prospects is Turkey, viewed from an international standpoint. The population consists mainly of Christians who abhor their masters and long for deliverance. Those Christians are nearly all members of the Greek church, or at least distinct from both the Papacy and Protestantism. There are a good many Protestant missionaries in Turkey Their labors are confined to fellow Christians, the Turk proper being impervious to the darts of occidental propagandists.

Of literature, Turkey can boast nothing worthy of note, either in the past or the present. In the higher ranges of civilization the Ottoman finds nothing congenial. The Saracen could fight as well and also easily enter into the intellectual life of the world.

The reigning Sultan of Turkey is Abdul-Hamid II., who succeeded to the throne on the deposition of his elder brother, Murad V., in 1876. He is the thirty-fifth in male descent from the founder of the empire, Othman, and twenty-eighth since Constantinople was conquered by the Turk. The royal residence is the seraglio, or harem, and this residence, notwithstanding the bankrupt condition of the imperial treasury, is maintained at enormous expense. The will of the Sultan is absolute. Forms of constitutional limitations upon the arbitrary authority of the Sultan have been adopted recently, but in point of fact the legislative and executive departments of the government are in the hands of his sublime highness, and the functions of law are directed by two officers, the Grand Vizier, who looks after secular affairs, and the Sheik-ul-Islam, who is the head of the church. There is a body or class known as the Ulema which comprises the "Mufte," or interpreters of the Koran, the judges and high functionaries of the law. "Bey" is a general term, applying to all important civil officers, while "Pasha" is the designation of tax gatherers and other officers who are both military and civic in function. A ministerial council, or cabinet, called the "Divan," exists, comprising eight ministerial departments, namely,

War, Finance, Marine, Commerce, Public Works, Police, Justice and Education.

Prior to the war with Russia in 1877, or rather to the treaty of Berlin in 1878, the area of the empire was 1,742,874 square miles and the population, something in excess of 28,000,000. That treaty gave Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria - Hungary, made the states of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia semi-independent, and added somewhat to the territory of Roumania, Servia and Montenegro, so that now the territory is estimated at 1,116,848, and the population at 21,000,000. Turkey in Europe was reduced about one-half, in both territory and population. It now consists of 62,028 square miles, population 4,275,000. Turkey in Asia comprises a territory of 710,320, with a population of 15,715,000; Turkey in Africa, 344,500 square miles, population, 1,010,000. A recent writer says, "All consular and other reports agree in stating that the native population of every part of the Turkish empire is fast declining, in many provinces at such a rate that the formerly cultivated lands are falling into the condition of deserts. Want of security for life and property, an anarchical yet extortionate administration, and a general absence of all moral and material progress, are given as the principal reason for the rapid decrease of the population." The same writer, in speaking of education in the Ottoman empire, observes that "public schools have been long established in most considerable Turkish towns, while 'medresses,' or colleges, with public libraries, are attached to the greater number of the principal mosques. But the instruction afforded by these establishments is rather limited. The pupils are chiefly taught to read and write the first elements of the Turkish language; the class-books being the Koran, and some commentaries upon it. In the 'medresses,' which are the colleges or schools of the ulemas, the pupils are instructed in Arabic and Persian, and learn to decipher and write the different sorts of Turkish characters. The instruction comprises philosophy, logic, rhetoric, and morals founded on the Koran; and these, with theology, Turkish law, and a few lessons on history and geography, complete the course of study."

The railways of the empire have a total length of about 1,000 miles. The national debt is nearly $1,000,000,000, and the national credit is at an exceedingly low ebb, and the paper money of the empire amounts to about $450,000,000. In every point of view Turkey is in a moribund state. The country is rich in resources, but for the most part those resources are undeveloped.

We cannot better close this chapter than by an excerpt from MacKenzie's History of the 19th Century. It runs thus: "The Turks conduct the affairs of the people whom they conquered on the principles of a hostile military occupation rather than a government. The depotism of the sultan is absolute and unrestrained. All life and property belong to him, and the Christian population must vindicate by an annual payment of money their claim to the elementary privilege of living. When the sultan requires their property he can send and take it. The people have no defense in law, and, by the principles on which the government is founded, none in right. But the sultan is not by any means their worst enemy. Men purchase from him the privilege of collecting taxes, and having paid the purchase-money, they are at liberty to inflict upon their victims such personal violence as may be deemed necessary to enforce the yielding up of their available means. Magistrates, judges, and government servants of every degree plunder at will for their own personal benefit. Every post, high and low, has been purchased by its holder, whose single aim in discharging its duties is to enrich himself at the expense of those over whom he has gained authority. Any trader who incurs the perilous suspicion of being rich, any proprietor of a good estate, may be put to death on a slight pretext, and his possessions seized. Any Turkish ruffian may with impunity assault or murder a Christian. A good Mohammedan regards it as his right and duty to kill a Christian when he has opportunity. The evidence of a Christian against a Turk is not received in a court of law. A Turk can legally steal Christian children and forcibly convert them to Islamism. The frightful principle of slave-owning law is practically in force in the Ottoman dominion—no Christian has any rights which a Turk is bound to respect. The only security of the people is to conceal their wealth and seem to be poor. Under the sway of the Turk the appearance of poverty is rarely deceptive."

RUSSIA.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

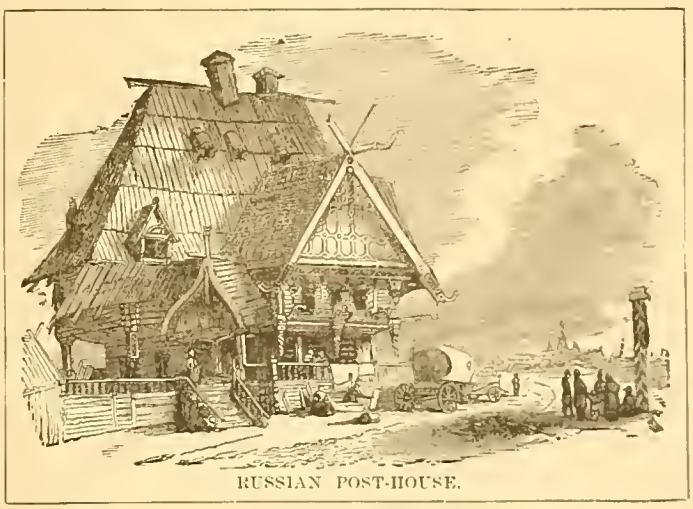
THE DAWN OF RUSSIAN HISTORY—NOVGOROD, THE GREAT REPUBLIC—GRAND PRINCES FROM RURIK TO IGOR—OLGA'S REVENGE AND PIETY—VLADIMIR AND THE INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY—YAROSLAF AND HIS CODE—FOUR CENTURIES OF PROGRESS—GENGHIS KHAN AND THE GOLDEN HORDE—THE IVANS—PETER THE GREAT—CATHARINE THE GREAT—MOSCOW AND NAPOLEON—ALEXANDER I. AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE—NICHOLAS AND THE CRIMEAN WAR—ALEXANDER II. AND THE SERFS—NIHILISM—SIBERIA—PRESENT CONDITION OF RUSSIA—GREEK CHURCH IN RUSSIA.

THE great territory of Russia first presents itself to the historic ken in A. D. 862. All previous events in that vast region must forever remain matter of conjecture. The first object which greets the eye is the best. Russia's aurora fills with astonishment the student of the past, unprepared to discover in that far-away land and time a vigorous republic, Novgorod, called "the republican mother of a most despotic empire." This dawn of history was the slowly fading twilight of a liberty whose day was clothed in mist, and whose last lingering ray was darkened by the night of despotism.

Novgorod the Great, not the great despoiler, but the great republic, preceded the great empire. Speaking of this period of early dawn, yet evening, Karamsin says: "At that time the great republic had become so powerful that it was a common saying among its neighbors, 'Who can dare oppose God and Novgorod the Great?' Its commerce," he continues, "extended to Persia, India, and to Constantinople." The nations around were its tributaries, but unfortunately between it and the Baltic Sea, which was its principal channel of communication with the rest of the world, were the unfriendly and barbaric Varangians, and the Baltic itself swarmed with Norman pirates. Novgorod dared not attempt unaided the subjugation of two such formidable enemies, and weary of constant depredations upon her commerce, allied herself with one against the other. Rurik, Prince of Varangia—the first name in Russian history—was invited with his two brothers to defend the Republic against the Normans. This was a dangerous experiment. Rurik used his power, as might have been expected, and became, after the death of his two brothers, Grand Prince of Russia, for from that time it really became a nation, although it was several centuries before the empire. Rurik's administration continued fifteen years. He was certainly a very great ruler, but unfortunately imbued with the spirit of despotism; a perfect specimen of barbaric greatness; brave, crafty, insatiable, adventurous, and capable of the most savage treachery. He might well have been the ideal and model of most subsequent rulers of Russia, doing

all in his power to supplant the arts of peace with the ferocity of war. In his reign began the agitation by sword and treaty of the never-ending Eastern question. Like all who came after him, he wanted Constantinople, the key of the Bosphorus, and like them he failed to get it. His immediate successor, Igor, was his close imitator, and lost his life while collecting taxes in the usual way, by taking an army around with him.

His widow, Olga, became regent. Fabulous tales are told of her revenge upon the slayers of her husband. After gratifying her vengeance she visited her northern dominions, where her first enterprise was to build towns, a favorite pastime with Russian rulers. In other countries towns grow; in Russia they are made to order. She regulated if she did not reduce the taxes, and most of all, she divided the land into commons. Here is the first mention of that famous institution, the Commune, and it is unfortunate that more particulars are not given of its infancy. After many other measures which contributed in favor of the argument for woman in politics, Olga became desirous of embracing Christianity. In order to do so she repaired to Constantinople where she was led to the baptismal font by the emperor himself. There were already some Christians in Russia, but even Olga's example failed to make it fashionable; her own son, who was to succeed her, holding her religion in contempt. He was, however, a noble character, as the chronicles attest, but was early killed in war with their old and ever new enemies, the Turks.



RUSSIAN POST-HOUSE.

The empire, or rather the nation, which was still composed of principalities and republics, was then divided, and civil war followed between the different rulers. One of these, Vladimir of Novgorod, conquered the other princes, his brothers, and reunited and enlarged Russia. For his victories he determined to return thanks to the ancient gods of his people by sacrificing not only a human being but a Russian. The choice fell upon the son of a Christian. The father refusing to give him up, both were killed. They have been canonized by the Russian church as its only martyrs. It appears almost incredible that Christianity should have met with no serious resistance among these pagans, when in all other lands it has caused or been the cause of streams of blood and misery unimaginable. Vladimir's greatness awakened the zealots of four religions, the Greeks, the Romans, the Jews, and the Mohammedans; each striving to convert him to their own system of ceremonies—one can hardly say worship. He appointed a committee of boyars—a class of noblemen—to investigate them all and report. After due consideration this cool convert adopted the Greek faith, influenced more by the example of his ancestress Olga—who was called the wisest of mortals—than by the report of the committee. Having made his decision, he experienced no little difficulty in getting himself baptized in a manner sufficiently sensational to satisfy his barbaric highness. It was necessary to go to war, take a city, and abduct a bishop that the ceremony might be performed in his own country. Once in the church himself, his troubles were ended. A general order was given that all should appear on the bank of the river and be baptized. Nobody objected—and so the present religion of Russia was established. The grateful national church recognizes Vladimir, its founder, as co-equal with the Apostles. He is said to have raised Russia to its highest primitive glory; but unwarned by the past, united Russia was again divided, this time among seven sons.

A season of bloodshed followed, wherein such mild terms as monster, fratricide and assassin are continually heard. Then Yaroslaf, the best and ablest of the seven, became ruler of the entire na-

tion. He was revered for his religion and tolerance, for his efforts in behalf of education and civilization, and he succored rather than encroached upon the liberties of the citizens of Novgorod. To him the national church owes its freedom from Byzantium, and Russia itself by its alliances became closely connected with the other great nations of Europe. The three daughters of Yaroslaf were Queens of Norway, Hungary and France, and his daughters-in-law belonged to the Greek, German and English royal families. He gave to Russia its first code. That was in the year 1018. The right of private vengeance was recognized; but when no avenger appeared the murderer paid a fine to the public treasury. The penalty for killing a man was twice as much as that for killing a woman. Under this code, Novgorod was indeed considered an appendage of the Grand Principality, but every citizen called to the town meeting by the sound of the great bell, could vote, and all questions were decided by that vote, even to the choice of Grand Prince—at least popular approbation was considered necessary, and he was not acknowledged until he had sworn to govern in accordance with the ancient laws of the Republic.

It was now four centuries since the reign of Rurick, at which time the absolute independence of Novgorod was compromised. Twice, during this period, there had been a strong centralized government, and more or less of despotism; in fact, a complicated blending of the two, despotism and democracy. Russia was then rapidly advancing towards civilization, and no nation in Europe had brighter prospects. Notwithstanding the fact that her Grand Princes had always been despots in their relations to other princes, and to individual subjects, interference with the local self-government of the republic had never been attempted. Nor was there then in Europe more commercial enterprise than in Novgorod, the glory of the North. But Russia as a whole lacked unity. The various states were not one people. Dissensions often arose and disintegration followed, until, when the Tartar invasion came, in 1236, the country was illy prepared to defend itself against that genius of barbarism, Genghis Khan, who with his Golden Horde made a pasture from Kasan to Vladimir. For two centuries the Tartar yoke accustomed the Russian neck to servitude, and the spirit of the people was so broken that the way was prepared for imperialism. The Tartars, that horde of organized tramps, bold and numerous, made themselves perfectly at home in Russia. Never rooting themselves deeply in the soil, never assimilating with the inhabitants, they simply foraged upon them, until finally, in the year 1462, a Grand Prince arose, strong enough and bad enough to cope with them.

Ivan, Grand Prince of Moscow, was at once the liberator and the enslaver of his country. For forty years he persistently pursued a determined purpose, with a cold, unimpassioned patience and persevering industry that should have made him the admiration of all who have a bias towards imperialism. To become absolute monarch of all the Russias, to be feared abroad and supreme at home, was his constant aspiration. Without personal bravery, with none of those high attributes which inspire enthusiasm, he was enabled by the condition of that most distressful country, and by a guile almost superhuman in its malignancy and efficacy, to conquer and reduce to submission all the discordant elements of Russia. The first step towards this achievement was the expulsion of the Golden Horde. This accomplished, one Prince was incited to war against another, until the only powerful barrier to his ambition was republican Novgorod, which wielded a power almost equal to that of Ivan. It ruled over all the North, whose commerce it had possessed and protected for seven centuries. Ivan destroyed that commerce and reduced the haughty, liberty-loving Novgorod, which could rally forty thousand warriors, and numbered four hundred thousand people, to the insignificant village which it still remains. All this was not accomplished without a long and bitter struggle. Liberty died as hard in Russia as in Poland,—but it died; and that great land was a dungeon without a window.

Had Ivan the Great and his successor Ivan the Terrible, been Ivan the Good and Ivan the Sensible, the future of Russia might have been as changed as would have been our national life had the American Revolution resulted in a monarchy instead of a Republic. The misfortune of Russia has been that her great rulers have seemed to be under the baneful influence of that drop of Tartar blood said to course in their veins.

The first real genius after Ivan the Great was Peter the Great. Their objects were different, their

methods the same. One forced submission upon the people, the other sought to force civilization upon them. Instead of attempting to gradually modify inherited customs, and supplant old ideas with new by a process of healthy growth, he tried to foist a sort of fiat civilization upon his subjects. Whatever he did was done by the force of his own unbridled and relentless will. That he accomplished many and wonderful things for Russia, cannot be denied; but that his ideas and methods were not conducive to a wholesome development of a happy and progressive people, subsequent events have fully shown. The rights and interests of his subjects were ruthlessly sacrificed to imperial ambition, and whatever he thought served to aggrandize the material welfare of Russia was to be purchased at any cost. The happiness, the moral improvement, the liberties of the people, were utterly unimportant to this purchaser of civilization. Notwithstanding all his reforms, his subjects were left to the mercy of whatever any tyrant like himself might do. He looked upon Russia as a great estate hereditary in the family of the Romanoffs. The civilization of which he was the author was precarious, not to say spurious and pernicious. The reign of Peter the Great was from 1689 to 1725.

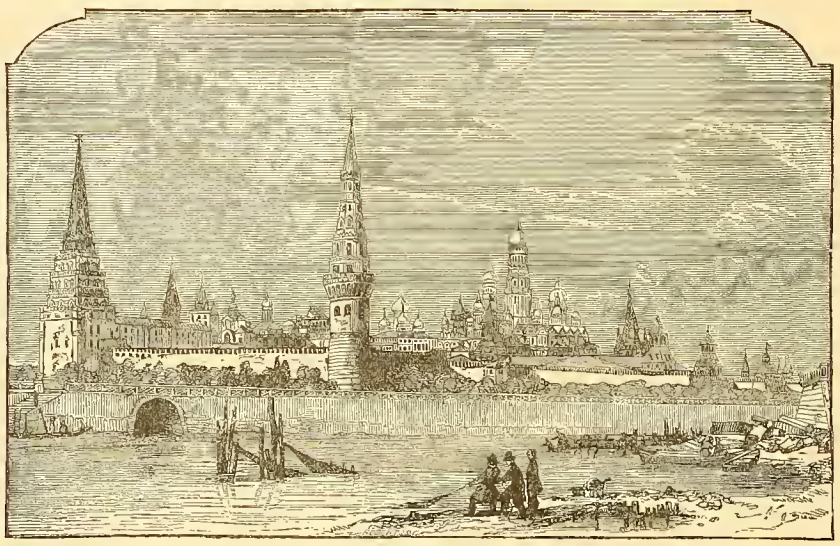
PETER THE GREAT. CATHARINE II.

Hitherto Russia had been more oriental than occidental in ambition and ideas, but henceforth its outlook was towards the West. The first of his successors to rise to prominence was Catharine II. Peter assumed the title of Emperor of Russia, and Catharine was every inch an empress. Her reign extended from 1762 to 1796. Those were eventful years. Frederick the Great ruled Prussia, Voltaire was in all his glory, and the independence of America was achieved. Catharine connived with Frederick to partition unhappy Poland; she sympathized with Voltaire in his skepticism and cynicism, while callous to his appeals for justice and liberty within her own border, quite content, however, to have England lose her colonial possessions. She was a monster of licentiousness, albeit a woman of mighty intellect. She was comprehensive in her plans and strong in execution.

Catharine the Great was succeeded by her son Paul, who continued somewhat the policy of Peter and Catharine. The throne to which he succeeded had by that time aspired to a rank among the great powers; and it improved somewhat under him. During the rule of Alexander I. (1801–1825) Russia was the balance of power in Europe. He was an able and liberal man, without being great in statesmanship or philanthropy. He may be called the father of the Holy Alliance. This compact was entered into at Paris, September 26, 1815, by the sovereigns of Russia, Austria and Prussia, joined by most of the other European powers, and bound the high contracting parties to exclude forever every member of the Bonaparte family from any throne in Europe, also to stand by each other in the maintenance of their royal prerogatives and the general peace. He affected great respect for philosophy.

It was during the reign of this czar that the city of Moscow came prominently before the world. This court capital of Russia lies 400 miles southeast of St. Petersburg. Founded in the twelfth century

it was the capital until 1712 when Peter the Great removed to the city which he built and named in his own honor. It is esteemed as a sacred city by the devout Cossacks. To its inhabitants belongs the honor of striking Napoleon a blow from which he never recovered. When he marched the French army thither in 1812, expecting to winter there, they had the heroism to set fire to it and flee. It contained then nearly 10,000 houses and over 250,000 inhabitants. Napoleon found barely 12,000 people clinging to the burnt city, and he was obliged to retrace his steps. No less than 875 cannons abandoned by the French when they retreated are now treasured in the arsenal at Moscow as trophies of that triumph by fire. The central part of the city, the Kremlin, stands upon a hill and is surrounded by a massive wall with lofty towers, and consists of churches, palaces and other public edifices. "As seen from a distance," says a recent visitor, "the Kremlin seems to form one gigantic but bewilderingly fantastic pile." The great conflagration already mentioned raged from the 14th to the 21st of September. It was not until the great fire at Chicago on the 9th of October, 1871, that the world witnessed another conflagration upon so large a scale.



VIEW OF THE KREMLIN.

Upon the death of Alexander I. Nicholas I. came to the throne. This stern despot ruled from 1825 to 1855. He had an inordinate faith in Russian prowess, verily believing that his country was able to defy all Europe. Under his influence the national pride rose to an absurd height. A pretext for a war upon Turkey, having for its object the capture of Constantinople, was sought and found. The war in the Crimea was the result.

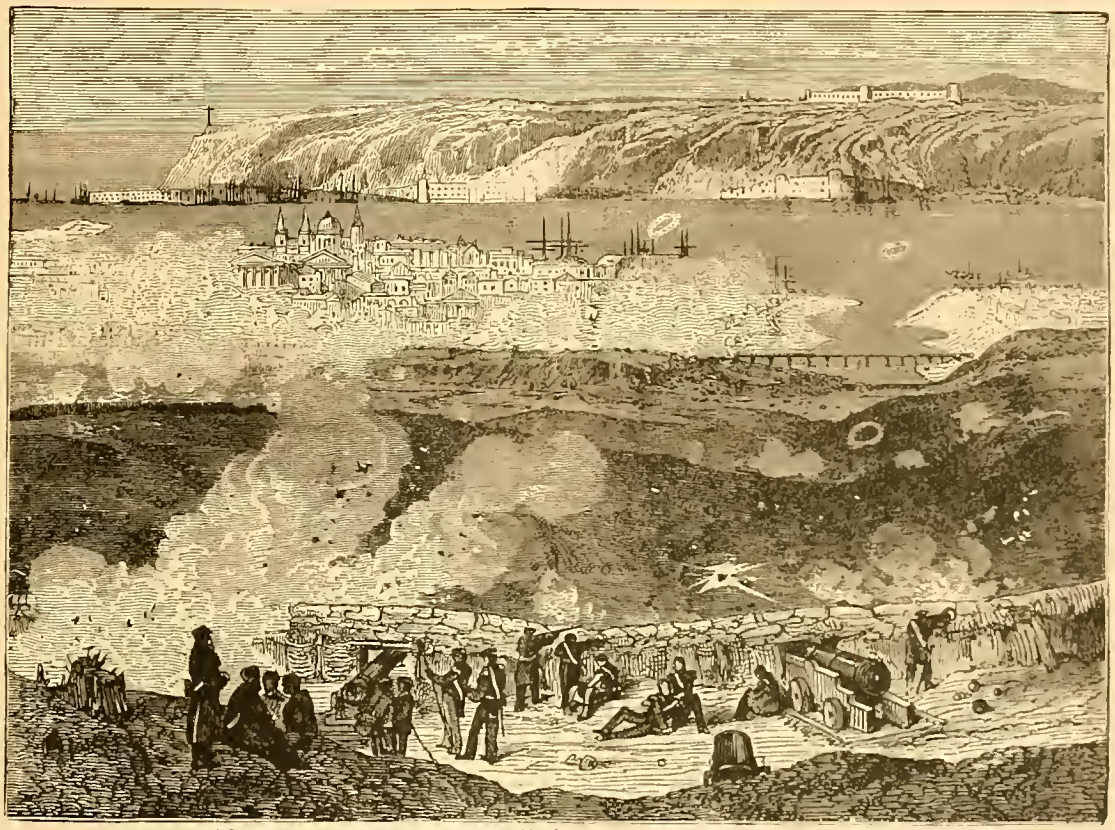
The Crimean war was a conflict in which were arrayed against Russia, Great Britain, France, Italy and Turkey. It began in the fall of 1853. The combined fleets of England and France entered the Black Sea, and the natural supremacy of Russia in those waters was permanently lost. Sevastopol, the stronghold of the Russians in the Crimea, was bombarded, and finally evacuated. On the 25th of October, 1854, was fought the battle of Balaklava, and eleven days later the victory of Inkermann was won.

Hostilities continued until February, 1856, when an armistice was concluded, followed in March by the treaty of Paris, which terminated the conflict. The sufferings and the losses of the Allies in camp were terrible. No general won renown in that war. Florence Nightingale, an English lady of philanthropic disposition became famous the world over for her efficient zeal in caring for the sick and wounded. She may well be called the angel of the hospital. The

ALEXANDER II. (1855).

great Sanitary Commission of the American civil war was a sublime product of her kindly genius.

The first distinctive policy of the successor to Nicholas, Alexander II., was the liberation of the serfs, which was accomplished in 1861. To that great act of justice the Czar was driven by two considerations, in themselves hostile,—regard for liberal sentiment, and fear of the progressive nobility and educated class. Imperialism felt the need of the good will of the fifty million laboring classes as a safeguard against the increasing and importunate demand for representative government. The absolutism of the throne was in danger. The emancipation of the serfs threw a halo around imperialism in Russia that blinded for a time the dimmed eyes of liberty, but the banishment during the last twenty years of twenty thousand subjects to the desolate wilds and horrible mines of Siberia has dispelled all illusion, and created a state of affairs absolutely awful, and which in the spring of 1881, culminated in the assassination, after repeated failures, of the very Czar whose fiat had liberated the serfs. Between emancipation and assassination occurred another war with Turkey, with no advantage to the Cossack. The other powers occupied a position of armed neutrality, taking good care that the Russian bear should not make his lair in the city of Constantine.



SEVASTOPOL DURING THE BOMBARDMENT OF THE ALLIED FORCES.

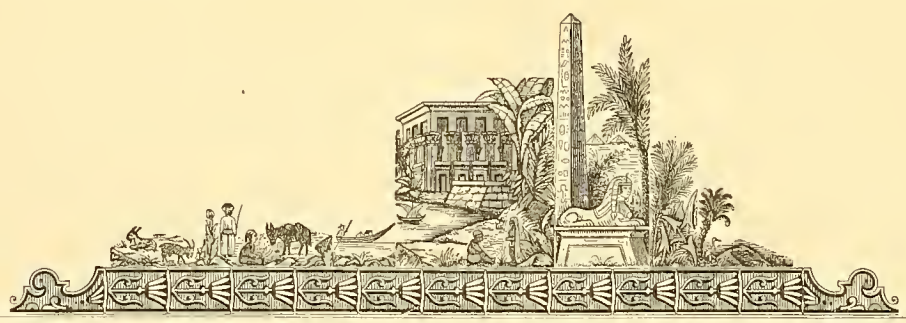
The latest phase of Russian affairs is Nihilism. To understand the creed of the Nihilists it is only necessary to recall the meaning of *nihil—nothing*. Its father, Michael Bakunin, says, "Our first work must be annihilation, and when once the floods rise take heed that no ark be allowed to rescue any atom of this old world which we consecrate to destruction." The prominent victims of this destruction are God, government, marriage, and property, and with these gone what would there be left? It is a frenzied anxiety to overthrow absolute despot-

ism, and can only be palliated by the reflection that "the destroyer of weeds, thistles and thorns is a benefactor, whether he soweth grain or not." The present Czar, Alexander III., is virtually a prisoner in the palace, so constant and great is his apprehension of peril from the Nihilists. Dynamite is the Bastile which deprives him of all real liberty.

The northern portion of Asia, Siberia, is a distinct and notable part of the Russian empire. The Ural mountains and the river of the same name divide it from Russia in Europe. On the south it has no well-defined boundary, being pushed downward farther and farther upon every pretext. The Arctic Ocean is its northern limit, and the Pacific its eastern. It has an area of something over four millions and a half square miles, and a population of over three millions, three hundred thousand. Russian and Polish exiles and their descendants form three-fourths of the population. As early as the seventeenth century the policy of banishment to those desolate polar regions was adopted by the Russian government. At first heretics were sent there in punishment of their dissent from the orthodox Greek church. Instead of burning heretics at the stake or massacring them, the Russian government transported them. Entire communities of Protestants (for such they really were) were sometimes forced to remove to Siberia and kept there. Then political offenders were banished there, and that policy is still maintained. Vast numbers of Poles have from time to time been compelled to cast in their lot with the Siberians. Nihilists, if not executed, are driven thither in large chain-gangs, suffering terribly on the long and arduous journey. Ordinary criminals are consigned to the same fate. The Ural, Altai and other mountains are rich in the precious metals, and the mines are worked by the prisoners. Terrible are the hardships of these worse than galley slaves. The government derives large revenue from these mines. The trade in Arctic furs is very considerable. The native Calmucks are rude savages. Reindeers abound in Siberia.

The balance of trade is in favor of Russia, yet singular as it may seem, it is a liberal exporter of specie. The mints of the empire turn out on an average $10,000,000 in gold coin and $5,000,000 in silver coin each year. More than two-thirds of this coinage flows out of the country, and has done so for at least a decade. The paper money of the country amounts to $890,000,000. The national debt, inclusive of this paper money, is $3,410,000,000. In European Russia the death rate and birth rate are both higher than any where else on the continent. Russia produces food enough to feed 90,000,000 of people, or ten million in excess of the actual population. It has fifteen thousand miles of railroad, constructed, however, with reference to military necessity more than commercial convenience.

The national church of Russia is the Greek church. The Emperor is now the head of it, and next to him ranks the Holy Synod, composed of seven bishops. Originally the head of the church was the Patriarch at Constantinople. When the Ottoman empire superseded the Byzantine, and the Moslem took the place of the Christian on the Bosphorus, a Russian patriarch was appointed by the Czar. That was in the sixteenth century. But Peter the Great arrogated to himself supreme ecclesiastical authority, abolishing the patriarchy and instituting the synod. No change has been made since his day in the spiritual rule of the country, except that other religions have been tolerated of late years. Strictly orthodox in doctrines, as judged from a distinctively Greek point of view, the Russian church is entirely independent and national in polity.



POLAND AND THE POLES.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

SYMPATHY FOR POLAND—FIRST APPEARANCE OF THE POLES—POLISH AGE OF FABLE—THE HISTORICAL ERA BEGINS—CASIMIR THE RESTORER, AND CASIMIR THE GREAT—FEUDALISM IN POLAND—ELECTIVE MONARCHY OR MONARCHICAL REPUBLIC—MODE AND PLACE OF ELECTION—FOREIGN INFLUENCE—JOHN SOBIESKI—ANARCHY AND INTERVENTION—STANISLAS, AND THE NEIGHBORING GREAT POWERS—ST. PETERSBURG AND WARSAW—FALL OF THE REPUBLIC—KOSCIUSKO AND THE WAR FOR NATIONAL LIFE—POLISH CHARACTERISTICS—THE INDIGNATION OF THE WORLD—RUSSIAN POLICY—PAN-SLAVONIC DREAM—POLISH LITERATURE—PAUL SOBOLESKI ON POLAND—POLISH JEWS—RELIGIOUS PERSECUTION.

IT is impossible to think of Russia without being reminded of Poland. The one will suggest the other to every intelligent mind. On the map of the world Poland no longer exists; but the Poles are a very positive and distinctive people. They have a country, denationalized, crushed and despairing, still a sharply defined part of the territory of Europe. Its history is full of pathos, its fate enlisting the sympathies of every tender soul, or even approximately respectable heart.

City of and Cathedral at Cracow.

The Poles first came within the vision of history as the *Polani* in the fifth century. They are a prominent branch of the great Slavonic family, and primarily occupied the broad plain between the rivers Oder and Vistula. The name itself means in its original root (*polaska*) a plain. Poland may be called the prairie of Europe, or rather, it is the nearest approach to a prairie (except in some respects Holland), that Europe can boast. There are large tracts of sand and morass, also broad reaches of forest, but as a whole, the country is well adapted to agriculture. Its waters flow into either the Baltic or the Black sea. The area of the land of the Poles is about 282,000 square miles. At the time of the first dismemberment of the kingdom (1773) the population was estimated at 12,000,000, mostly farmers, enjoying a comparative thrift, feeding immense herds of cattle, horses and

swine, and cultivating a wide area of rye, barley and wheat. That such a people should have been so completely subjugated, is one of the miracles of history.

Like all countries, Poland had its age of fable. It dates from the ducal reign of Lech I., in the middle century. In some chronicles the country is called *Lechia*. About one hundred years later flourished Wenda, the Queen Elizabeth of the Poles. She was so tenacious of her sovereignty that she declined all offers of marriage. Her seat of government was Cracow, named in honor of Cracus, a ruler whose memory is still revered in Polish tradition. There were many other legendary sovereigns, petty and shadowy.

The historical era began in 962 with Miecislas I., the fifth prince of the house of Piast. He introduced Christianity, being compelled to do so as a part of the price of the hand of the Hungarian Princess Dombrowka. The marriage and the baptism occurred the same day. The next step was to force the rite of baptism upon the people, and it was not a difficult thing to do. The old faith sat lightly upon the nation, and gave way almost without a struggle. The second of the Christian kings, Boleslas I., made the Polish arm feared throughout Hungary, Germany, and even in Italy and France. Russia crossed swords with him, led on by Vladimir the Great. He has well been called "the true founder of his country's greatness." He was succeeded by Miecislas II., an idle and vicious imbecile. It was under his reign, however, that the land was divided into Palatinates, each presided over by a local judge. That was certainly an important step in the right direction. He died in 1034. For seven years the Poles were kingless. The interregnum was prolific of great evils. Despotism is better than anarchy, too much government than none at all. The late king had left behind him a queen and an infant son. The former tried to sway the scepter, but was so very unpopular that she was obliged to leave the country. She took with her the heir to the throne, Casimir. At first he was not much missed, but as the horrors of anarchy increased, the desire for the restoration of the royal family increased. After six or seven years the lost heir was recovered. It was a long time before the mother would disclose his hiding-place.

For three centuries the stream of Polish history flows on, turbulent, turgid and monotonous. During all that time nothing occurred, according to the records, which challenges special attention. From Casimir I. to Casimir III. was nearly three centuries, but nothing will be lost in crossing that dreary waste with eyes closed in sleep. The first Casimir was called the Restorer, the second the Great, and great he surely was. As a reformer his genius shone resplendent. Brigandage was checked, and every form of violence held in some restraint. Casimir was not content with temporary measures. He established the reign of law. A convention was called by him to frame a code. This was a very important step. That system of laws had all the defects of feudalism, but was a very great advance over irresponsible and unbridled absolutism. The Poles were early divided into three classes: nobles, peasants and burghers, or town-folk, and for each the law was different. The laboring class felt the extreme rigor of serfage; the nobles were arrogant, idle and lawless, the burghers industrious, independent and mildly aggressive. In the growth of the country the cities took the lead. One especial reason of this was the fact that Casimir was the great patron of industry. The artisans flocked to the Polish towns and found profitable employment. From that time Poland found place among the more progressive and prosperous nations of Europe.

From the very first, feudalism was exceptionally strong in Poland, and the nobility never neglected an opportunity to enhance the power of their class. The kings were gradually reduced in authority until they became little else than putty in the hands of the nobles. With the accession of Casimir IV., 1445, Poland may be said to have passed from a monarchy to a republic. To our political conceptions it is inconsistent to speak of a country as being both a republic and a kingdom; but such the land of the Poles became in the middle of the fifteenth century, so remaining until the nation itself was blotted out. Upon the death of a king the lords would meet to elect a successor. The first distinctively elective king (for so aggressive had the nobility become that the positive claim of right to determine the royal succession came almost as a matter of course) Casimir IV., was Grand Duke of Lithuania, and he did not want the crown. For a long time he evaded the unwelcome honors thrust upon him. It was not that he shrank from responsibility, but he hoped to extort concessions to the royal authority. In this he failed. The nobles

compelled him to occupy the throne as their puppet rather than their ruler. And in all the subsequent history of Poland the kingly power was the shadowy reflection of the aristocracy.

Early in the sixteenth century a few burghers were admitted to the parliament of barons, and that was the recognition of the growing importance of the citizen (using the term in its original significance.) In religious matters the influence of Huss and Luther was very considerable, although repressed and finally suppressed by persecution. Under the reign of Sigismund I. (1506—1548) leaders of the reformed faith were beheaded or banished. That king lived to a great old age and was one of the great rulers of his age. Upon his death his son was chosen to fill his place. Hitherto the elective franchise was confined to a very narrow range. The kings were taken from the family of the Jagellos. When the last member of that line died, the way was open to a wider range of choice. The nobles met in 1573 on the plains of Prague, on the bank of the Vistula, opposite Warsaw. Heretofore the selection of a new king had devolved upon delegates representing the aristocracy; but now it was agreed that the entire body of the Equestrian order should be eligible to advice in the election. Thus tens of thousands of armed and mounted men were brought together to choose a ruler for life. "At the time appointed," says Ducloss, "for the holding of the elective diet, such numbers of the nobles arrived that the circumference of the place (twelve miles in extent) where they were stationed by counties for the greater facility of collecting their suffrages, was scarcely able to contain them; and as they were all armed, they looked like men assembled to conquer a kingdom, rather than to exercise a peaceful, deliberative privilege. In the center of a circle or *kolo*, was the tent, capable of holding six thousand people, and in it the senators and ministers of the crown met for consultation." This description applies specifically to the assembly held upon the death of Sigismund II., the last of the Jagellos, but it is hardly less appreciable to the usual convocations at the recurrence of each interregnum. As a matter of course the meetings were turbulent, often bloody, and never free from imminent peril. Many a time before it finally fell the Republic of Poland tottered and rocked upon its base, seeming to be on the verge of utter destruction.

Foreign as well as domestic princes were eligible to the throne. A Czar of Russia, Alexis, father of Peter the Great, was a candidate at one time. The difficulty of an election was greatly increased by the veto power, inherent in the diet, by which the will of the majority could be nullified. That feature of the law of royal elections was finally abandoned out of sheer necessity.

For twenty-two years, from 1674 to 1696, Poland was under the rule of a truly great man, John Sobieski. He nobly earned the crown by having been his country's best defender in many an hour of danger. It was not so much hostile Christians as Moslems that harassed Poland. Turks and Tartars were very insolent, aggressive and powerful. Ibrahim the Devil, Pasha of Damascus, led a vast army of invasion. Another time Mustapha led three hundred thousand Mohammedans in a crusade upon the Christians, and, says Salvandy, "Germany looked to Sobieski as its savior, and Europe as the bulwark of Christendom. The embassador of the empire and nuncio of the pope were at his feet in importunate supplication." That was in the year 1683. The Cross was in peril, and the Crescent seemed about to displace it. But Sobieski was equal to the emergency. Poland saved Christianity from the last really formidable assault of Islamism. It is no exaggeration to say that on the twelfth of September, beneath the walls of Vienna, the last battle of the Crusade was fought, and Polish valor, genius and prestige won the day. From that time on, the conflict was a series of assured victories for the Christians.

The name of Sobieski deserves to rank with the supreme warriors of all times, but as a ruler in peace he was weak and wicked. He was the last independent King of Poland, and incomparably the greatest sovereign his country ever knew. The Republic was on the brink of ruin, and if he did not save it, he at least prolonged its life.

The eldest son of John Sobieski was confident of his election to succeed his father, but the nobles were not at all disposed to favor his candidacy, or that of any other member of the family. The candidates were two besides James Sobieski, Prince Conti, nephew of Louis XV. of France and Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony. The latter won the prize, but he did not keep it long. Charles XII. of Sweden took the field against him, and

made short work of capturing Cracow, deposing the king and placing Stanislas, Palatine of Posnania, upon the throne, if throne it may be called. He was a great and splendid man, but fortune was against him. The republic of Poland was in a state of interminable turmoil and factiousness. A little later we find Stanislas a fugitive and Frederick Augustus back in power. The latter died in 1733. "He had a few virtues," says a native historian, "but more vices. His reign was one continued scene of disasters; many of which may be attributed to himself, but more perhaps to the influence of circumstances." The diet which met to elect a successor resolved, first of all, not to place the crown upon a foreign brow.

The dethroned Stanislas, now father-in-law to Louis XV., was the choice of the nobles. Sixty thousand voices were raised in his support. But Austria and Russia favored the candidacy of Frederick Augustus II., son of the late king. A Muscovite army proclaimed him king and marched to the enforcement of the proclamation. Stanislas had lost his ambition and energy. He was unsuited to the task of resisting foreign interference. The Czar was foremost in claiming protectoral power. "St. Petersburg," we are told, "was the great focus by the middle of the eighteenth century where the rays of Polish intrigue were concentrated, and where the more ambitious natives resorted to obtain, by flattering the imperial confidants, the dignities of the republic. Every intimation, however slight, from the northern metropolis, was an imperious obligation on the feeble king and his servile minister; and not on them alone, but on the great body of the nobles, who had lost all sense of the national dishonor, and who transferred their homage from Warsaw to St. Petersburg without shame or remorse." Of course the republic could not long survive such a state of affairs. Famine, anarchy, rapine and desolation were everywhere.

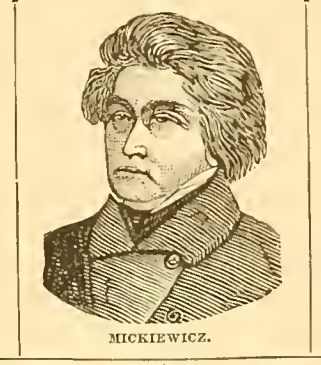
The population dwindled away, and poverty took the place of thrift. Catharine of Russia resolved to end the shame, and erase the republic from the political map of Europe. Stanislas Augustus feebly swayed the scepter of Poland during the expiring hour. The Poles had the bravery necessary to defense, but the uncongruous and unstable government afforded unfriendly neighboring powers facilities for devising ways and means to dismember the distracted nation. The evil came gradually. When too late the nation was aroused to the danger of the situation, and the cause of national independence found a grand leader in the heroic Thaddeus Kosciusko, one of the heroes of the American revolution. He had rendered important service in the cause of American Independence, and returning to his native land, made a grand effort to rescue it from the allied robbers. Cracow and Warsaw both opened their gates to him. Kosciusko was prudent and kindly no less than brave, but the frenzy of the French Revolution, rather than the calm patriotism of the Americans, pervaded the ranks of the nationalists. Wild scenes of blood were enacted, and the salvation of Poland rendered hopeless by these excesses. In 1795 the end came. Warsaw fell before a Russian army. Austria, Prussia and Russia divided the territory between them, the latter taking the lion's share. It was the Muscovite who had done the fatal work, for the most part, and the other powers were made partakers in the infamy as the price of acquiescence.

Kosciusko.

In his history of the Republic of Poland Ferrend says in contemplation of the erasure of the republic: "Perhaps no people on earth can boast more personal heroism than the Poles, but as it was virtually a country without a government, without finances, a national army, or any central authority of binding force, the surprise is not that it fell at last, but that it stood so long. Valor, although almost superhuman, could not preserve the proud nobles from unbounded dissipation, nor consequently from temptation to corruption, from receiving bribes to repair their shattered fortunes; it could not prevent the powers which lavished this means of corruption from interference with the affairs of the kingdom; it could not dissolve the union of these powers with the discontented parties at home; it could not inspire the slow-moving machine of government with vigor, when the humblest partisan, corrupted by foreign money, could arrest it with a word; it could

not avert the entrance of foreign armies to support the factions and rebellions; it could not, while divided in itself, uphold the national independence against the combined effects of foreign and domestic treason; finally, it could not effect impossibilities, nor therefore forever turn aside the destroying sword which had so long impended over it."

The extinction of the republic of Poland aroused the indignation of the world. France, England and America were indignant to the last degree. Sweden and Turkey joined in the outcry. During the Napoleonic war, and the diplomacy which followed, there seemed to be some hope of restoration. To little purpose. The three robber powers never abandoned the idea which had so long been cherished. Napoleon's star set and the treaty of Vienna was made. By that treaty the kingdom of Poland was proclaimed June 20, 1815, with Cracow as its capital, but it was simply the district of Cracow with a population of 61,000, hardly a shadow of real Poland. Four millions of the people came under the direct sway of Russia. At that time Alexander was Czar, and at first he seemed disposed to rule the Poles in justice and with great liberality. For some time all went well. The people were fast becoming loyal to the Czar at St. Petersburg. This state of things continued three years without signs of collapse. But it was an unnatural condition of affairs, and discontent on one side and repressive measures on the other, created a breach which widened continually. When the vicious Constantine succeeded Alexander almost all pretense of good feeling between Poles and Russians disappeared. Conspiracy after conspiracy sprang up to emphasize the Polish discontent without alleviating the evils of foreign rule. By 1830 popular discontent had taken the form of insurrection, and failure then did not prevent subsequent efforts to throw off the yoke, and restore Poland to political autonomy.



MICKIEWICZ.

KRASINSKI.

SLOWACKI.

THREE GREATEST POLISH POETS.

It would be profitless to follow the fortunes of these unavailing efforts to restore the lost nationality. Time seems to lessen the prospect of success, and to-day Poland is enveloped in a darkness unrelieved by a single star. The only approach to hope is the dream of a Pan-Slavonic nation, a nation which should so far reconstruct the map of Europe as to make into one nation all the Slavs. Such a conformation to the divisions of race, language and traditional sympathies is not to be expected. Bloody rebellions arose in Poland in the years 1830, 1846, 1849 and 1863, each having been crushed with unpitying rigor by Russian despotism. The Poles are the Irish of the continent in valor, perseverance, lack of unity, and repeated calamities.

In a literary point of view Poland has never produced a genius so brilliant as to attract the admiration of mankind. That nation boasts about fifteen hundred literary names, but one may search through all the productions of that literature, as made accessible to English readers, without being rewarded with a single diamond of thought which shines with especial luster.

From Kochanowski to Olizerowski the heights of immortal poetry are not reached. Often pathetic, the verse of Poland is never Shakspearean. The venerable Paul Soboleski, author and editor of "Poets and Poetry of Poland," says, "Prostrate, partitioned, suffering and blotted out as it were from existence, Poland awaits the fulfillment of her destiny. Fate sometimes strikes nations as it does individuals, but hope in her case, though it may seem futile to other nationalities, never forsakes the sorrowing hearts of her children. Scattered though they are throughout the habitable globe, they have never ceased to wait, to hope, and to trust that she will once more be resuscitated, resurrected, regenerated, and be once more counted among the nations of the earth."

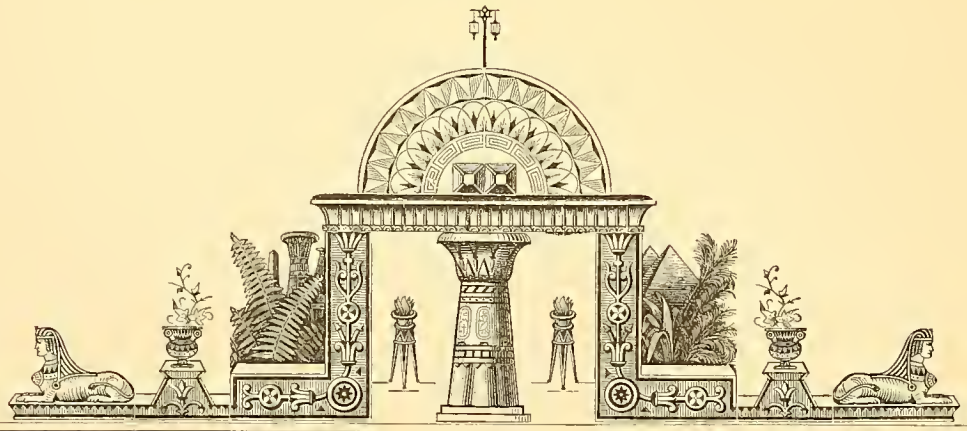
Three names stand out conspicuously in Polish literature as the great triumvirate of song. The earliest, but not the first, of the trio was Archbishop Krasicki, born in 1734. He died the first year of the present century. After the partition of the country his bishopric, Warmia, fell to the lot of Frederick of Prussia. That sovereign had no sympathy with the deeply religious nature of his more than royal subject, but he admired his learning, wit and genius, and invited him to reside at his palace of Sans Souci. In 1795 be raised him from Bishop of Warmia to Archbishop of Gniezno. He was a voluminous writer. The really supreme name, however, was Adam Mickiewicz, born in 1798. He was fifty-seven years of age when he died. He was a subject of Russia, and enjoyed the favor of the nobility at Moscow, and later at St. Petersburg. But good fortune did not abide with him, for he was obliged to leave the country to save himself from arrest for treason. He resided much of the time at Paris, where his bones now rest. The youngest of the three, Julias Slowacki, was born in 1809. He was an intense patriot. The revolution of 1848 filled his heart with hope for his beloved Poland, but when that hope died he too passed away, expiring in April, 1849. He voiced the deep pathos of unhappy Poland.

Another great name in Polish literature is Stanislas Konarski. He was not a poet, but a philosopher. He is credited with creating a new phase in the intellectual life of his country. He was born in the first year of the eighteenth century. He belonged to an aristocratic family, and in his day was on friendly terms with the great thinkers of all Europe. He was a practical educator and a powerful promoter of political reform.

Poland can boast at least one very charming poetess, Elizabeth Druzbacka. She belonged to the first half of the eighteenth century. She was not versed in any language but her own and wrote pure national verses, contributing materially to the development of a distinctively national literature.

Poland has a larger proportion of Jewish population than any other part of Europe. That race has indeed been most cruelly persecuted there, as every where, but when the indignities and outrages of Spain and other parts of Christendom rendered life a burden to that people, they could find in Poland comparative immunity from persecution. The Polish Jews are easily distinguished by their ignorance, superstitions and general inferiority, as compared with German Jews.

Russia proper has suffered little from the persecution of Christians by Christians, but the Polish Slavs are intense papists, and the monstrous measures resorted to by the Russian church and government to "convert" them to the Greek faith form one of the most revolting pages in the annals of persecution. As late as the fourth decade of the present century inoffensive and saintly nuns were treated with all the brutality that Russian bigotry and savagery could devise.



ANCIENT GERMAN VILLAGE.

MEDIEVAL GERMANY.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

ANCIENT TEUTONS—THE GERMAN RACE—INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY—THE MEROVINGIAN KINGS—CHARLES THE HAMMER AND THE SARACENS—THE REIGN OF THE STEWARDS—CHARLEMAGNE—LUDWIG THE PIOUS—OTTO THE GREAT—FREDERICK BARBAROSSA—THE INQUISITION AND FREDERICK II.—DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE—THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE—"THE GERMAN ORDER OF THE NORTH"—CONVERSION OF PRUSSIA.

IN tracing the course of Roman history, occasional and far-off glimpses were caught of the Germans. They appeared upon the stage of events as brave and fierce barbarians, occupying a vast and illy defined territory, requiring the genius of a Cæsar to subdue them, and the persistence of imperialism to keep them in subjection. They cannot be said to have contributed to or retarded civilization, but were aloof from it, except as brought into uncongenial contact with it.

In pointing out the objects of interest in the medieval period, attention was called to the greatest of German monarchs, Charlemagne, who belonged no less to France than to Germany, and who received the crown as emperor at Rome. He rises into the air the veritable Mont Blanc of Alpine royalty, visible from afar in every direction. We have also seen something of Germany in connection with Italy. But all these fugitive glimpses must have served only to sharpen the appetite for more specific and orderly information in regard to that people, once composed of hostile tribes, but now a homogeneous race. The Germans, as the term is sometimes used, include the most important branch of the great Aryan race, a division of the human family including not only the English and Scandinavians, but the Hindoos, Persians, Greeks, Romans, Celts and Slavs. By the aid of comparative philology, the oneness in origin of all these great nationalities can be established, but it is in its popular sense that the term is here used.

In the old days of Roman conquest and Gallic invasion, Germany, France, Spain and the northern part of Italy were to the soldiers and senators, the plebeians and patricians of the Tiber, one vast world of "outer darkness." It was in 380 B. C. that Pytheas, a Greek navigator, first sailed into the Baltic, and in B. C. 113 occurred the invasion of Roman territory by the northern horde. Marius, Cæsar and later leaders of Roman legions won laurels (and sometimes lost them, too) in fighting the

Germans. They had neither cities nor villages, but were nomadic. Their vices were indolence, drunkenness and gambling; their virtues were respect for domestic ties, bravery and fidelity. They worshiped the forces of nature under a multitude of names. Tacitus, in his "Germania," gives a very flattering description of the people. They were prepared to accept civilization, but Rome was a conqueror, not a civilizer.

The most noted of the Germans were the Goths. They accepted Christianity in the fourth century, and from them it gradually spread to all Germany. The story of the first real step towards civilization is interesting. Some German pirates brought home from the Levant a Christian boy, Ulfila, who conceived the idea of evangelizing the people with whom his lot was thus cast. He translated the Bible into their language, and it is supposed that he even invented a Gothic alphabet. A part of his translation of the New Testament is still extant, preserved in the library at Upsala, Sweden. He was not persecuted, nor were his fellow workers in the cause.

THE BATTLE OF TOURS.

The old Germans, like their descendants of to-day, were religious liberals. Ulfila was an Arian, or Unitarian, and although Rome adopted the Athanasian doctrine of the Trinity, Germany always leaned strongly towards heterodoxy. "After the invention of a Gothic alphabet by Ulfila, we hear no more," says Bayard Taylor, "of a written German language until the eighth century. There was at least none accessible to the people." The Latin was cultivated a little in connection with politics and religion. By the year 570, Europe, outside of Germany, was very generally Christianized, but the greater part of the Germans were still Pagans. Their final and complete evangelization was the result of military necessity, dictated by political expediency, rather than the triumph of the Cross upon its merits. So many pagan customs were retained, under a change of name, that the transition was almost imperceptible.

As western Europe emerged from the obscurity of barbarism, the vast regions now known as Germany and France were inseparable. Clovis, who founded the Merovingian dynasty in the last years of the fifth century, ruled over both as one. That dynasty continued from 486 to 638, a century and a half, during which the Franks or French were specially conspicuous. It was a sickening succession of crowned criminals. The people were the victims of a family feud running through generations. The Nibelungen Lied, the Iliad of Germany, to be referred to more especially hereafter, celebrated in rude song the horrible story of Merovingian atrocities. These kings and queens (for the women were as bad as the men) practiced all heathenish vices while professing the Christian name. Taylor tells us that during the long and bloody feuds of the Merovingian kings the system of freedom and equality which the Germanic races had so long possessed, was shaken to its very base, the tendency being to augment the power of the nobles, the civil officers and the dignitaries of the church.

Dagobert, the imbecile and vile, was the last as Clovis was the first of this line of sovereigns. The form and semblance of authority lingered in the

family after him, but the reality of power, which had been gradually slipping away, distinctly passed to what may be called the dynasty of the Major domi or Stewards, of the Royal Household.

From 638 to 768 these Stuarts, beginning with Pepin, held the reins of power. The second of them was Charles Martel, to whom France and Germany are indebted for one of the most important victories of all history. The Saracens having gained a firm footing in Spain, crossed the Pyrenees 350,000 strong and threatened to carry the Crescent in triumph over all Western Europe, and perhaps extinguish the light of the Cross. It certainly seemed as if Islam was about to possess all the West. It was in October, 732, that Charles Martel, surnamed Charles the Hammer, gave battle to the invaders near Poictiers. It is said that when night fell, nearly two hundred thousand dead and wounded lay upon what seemed to be the indecisive field. When the next morning came, Charles prepared to renew the fight, but found that the enemy had retreated. It was the Gettysburg of the war between the Saracens and the Christians. The soldiers of the Crescent never again attempted to meet the Franks and Germans upon their own soil. Those Yankees of Northern Europe had won a battle decisive of that point, although it was many years before the Southwest was freed from the Saracens. It is known as the Battle of Tours.

LUDWIG THE PIOUS.

After several generations the Stuarts found it expedient to assume the title as well as the reality of royalty, and when Pepin the Short died (768) he was "king by the grace of God." The pope had bestowed the title upon him, also the title of "Patrician of Rome." He left two sons, one of whom soon died, leaving the other, Charles the Great, sole sovereign of France and Germany. He wore the crown forty-three years, being during the latter part of his reign Emperor of Rome.

Charlemagne was in the main a German. He established his court at Aix-la-Chapelle, where he was finally buried. While he sought to clothe himself with the faded purple of imperial Rome, he none the less devoted himself to the development of the German people into a great and civilized nation. He established schools, organized local government, collected with great care the songs, traditions and chronicles of the people, evidently hoping to build up the Germanic character upon a native basis. He was seven feet high, and no less gigantic in intellect than in body. Vast and beneficent was his scheme. Germany seemed upon the eve of a great career.

Ludwig the Pious, son and successor of so great a sire, was the weak and abject tool of the priests. He closed the schools, or gave them into the hands of the ecclesiastics, and worse still, he totally destroyed the ballads, songs and legends of the Germans which his great father had collected. Of all that wealth of Teutonic folk-lore, nothing survived, unless it be the fragment of the "Song of Hildebrand." Germany was now thrust back into barbarism, and its development retarded for centuries. In the last years of the tenth century, Germany had a ruler capable of making his nation grand and prosperous—Otto the Great. But he was haunted by an evil ambition. Instead of trying to develop his own legitimate realm, he frittered away his resources and opportunities in vainly trying to grasp that delusive and illusive phantom, the Roman Empire. He was determined, like many less notable German emperors, and two still greater men of his line, Charlemagne and Frederick Barbarossa, to make Aix-la-Chapelle the capital of an empire which should include Italy, and be a real revival of the glory of the Cæsars. It was a dreary and bloody endeavor to realize the impossible.

Frederick I., called Barbarossa for his red beard, was elected emperor by the sovereign votes of the German princes in 1152, and wore the crown until he was cut off in one of the Crusades in the year 1197. He was a Suabian, Suabia being then a

prominent German state, long since extinct. Barbarossa did much to restore peace and justice within his realm. He made repeated attempts to bring the Lombards into subjection, but no sooner would he return to Germany, than the standard of revolt would be raised. It was after his sixth expedition into Italy that the news of the Saracen capture of Jerusalem was heard, and the fanatical zeal of Europe, including that of Frederick and his knights, was aroused. This valiant king lost his life when near the borders of Syria, drowned while bathing in a river. That was in 1190.

After several troublous years, Barbarossa's grandson, Frederick II., came to the imperial throne. In his reign the ambitious Pope Innocent III. established the Inquisition, and determined to make Italy one of the crown diamonds of the church. The pontiff and the emperor played fast and loose with each other during the lifetime of the former, after which Frederick determined to make good his hereditary claim to Italy. For this he was excommunicated by Pope Gregory IX. In 1228 he undertook a Crusade, and as the result of diplomacy rather than valor, secured possession of Jerusalem and the country round about for ten years, justly claiming the crown of Jerusalem as his reward. The pope did all he could to defeat that bloodless victory of the Cross. Upon the king's return the people were so generally in sympathy with him and against the unjust pontiff, that the latter was driven from Rome and glad to regain the keys of St. Peter by removing the anathema he had laid upon the sovereign. Frederick established his court at Palermo, Italy, and was essentially an Italian rather than a German emperor. Boldly did he confront the arrogance of the church, and without being in design a religious reformer, wrought a great work in preparing the way for Luther and his co-laborers, being a protestant but not a Protestant. Brave, heroic, noble and persistent, his is one of the most illustrious names in European history. But the record of this Frederick has a stain. His life was largely spent in trying to crush the republican cities of Italy. That great wrong was not, however, without its compensating good. It operated as an important exemption of the German free cities from imperial intervention. So fully occupied was he in the south that the north enjoyed beneficent neglect. He died in 1250, and, after a feeble and melancholy struggle for existence, the dynasty to which he belonged, the Hohenstaufels, became extinct.

FREDERICK II. PUTTING ON THE CROWN OF JERUSALEM.

No other monarch of the medieval period deserves mention. The electors became corrupt to the lowest point, and openly sold the imperial crown to the highest bidder. At one time the Duke of Cornwall, England, bought the prize, his revenue from the tin mines of his duchy making him the Vanderbilt of his day. He did not, however, attempt to exercise imperial jurisdiction. The German people were far more respectable than the empire as such.

By 1410 there were three claimants of the German crown, also three claimants of the papal tiara. It may be remarked parenthetically that the really significant event of this period was the Hussite war, which was the morning-star of Protestantism,

or, as it might be called, the signal-gun of that great conflict between papal authority and the right of private judgment, in which Germany took the leading part, and from the commencement of which dates the close of the medieval age. Luther was not the originator of the great movement which bears his name. That honor belongs to John Huss, with whom our next chapter will begin.

Before closing this account of medieval Germany notice must be taken of the Hanseatic League, and the state of civilization which produced the cities belonging to it. Late in the fourteenth century several commercial cities sprung up in Germany, mostly in the north. They were largely the result of the Crusades. Those expeditions had made the people of Europe acquainted with oriental luxuries, and created wants which could only be supplied by commerce. Lubeck, Hamburg and Bremen were the first cities in importance to grow out of this demand. Those were marts of exchange for Eastern and Western commodities. They constituted the "Hansa," and drew into their alliance, among others, the cities of the Rhine. They constituted a vast commercial and naval power, bound together by the common tie of traffic. This Hanseatic League had its agencies in every commercial city, from Lisbon to Novgorod. Their vessels plowed the Mediterranean and whitened the Baltic and the North seas. Carthage was outstripped, and a spirit of enterprise stimulated which was a cardinal factor in dispelling the blackness of the Dark Ages. Then for the first time in Europe there were "merchant princes." The key to the Hanseatic policy is well supplied in the saying of those princes, "If the emperor claims authority over us, then we belong to the pope; if the pope claims any such authority, then we belong to the emperor." The league was politic and thrifty. One of the emperors tried to destroy it, but failed utterly, and the exultant merchants said among themselves, "The Devil tried to shear a hog, but found it 'great cry and little wool.'"

This league and the "German Order in the North" cared neither for the pomp of kings nor the solemnity of ecclesiastics. The latter had an independent realm and was a gradual growth from the same root of secular thrift which gave rise to the broader league. Unfortunately both lacked the unity and system necessary to develop a permanent political nationality, but as a "power diffused" deserves very high rank. The German Order was an order of knights, growing out of the Crusades as did the Knights of St. John and the Knights Templar (the two latter belonging to Italy). The merchants of Bremen and the other cities of Northern Germany fostered this order, and by their patronage gave it a commercial or secular spirit quite apart from the religious character of the other orders.

But to the German Order must be accredited the honor of Christianizing the Prussians, the latest portion of the German people to discard paganism. Their spiritual welfare was watched over by "the Brothers of the Sword," a branch of the German Order. Like the greater part of medieval evangelization, the conversion of the Prussians was wrought by force.

The Hanseatic League dates from 1241, and in the same century German architecture made great strides. So, too, did university education, but more particularly in the Italian part of the empire. Some idea of the political condition of Germany can be formed from the statement that at the end of the Hohenstaufen dynasty there were one hundred and sixteen priestly rulers, one hundred ruling dukes, princes, counts and barons, and more than sixty independent cities, not counting, of course, the petty states and republican cities of Italy.

GERMANY AND THE REFORMATION.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE GREAT TRANSITIONAL PERIOD—JOHN HUSS IN PRAGUE—THE HUSSITE WAR—FALL OF THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE—INVENTION OF PRINTING AND PAPER—MARTIN LUTHER—DIET OF WORMS—TRANSLATION OF THE BIBLE—LUTHER'S OPPORTUNITY AND POLICY—THE ANABAPTISTS—THE AUGSBURG CONFESSION—THE VICTORY OF PRUDENCE—THE THIRTY-YEARS WAR—GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS AND WALLENSTEIN—THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA—THE DESOLATIONS AND RESULTS OF THE GREAT CONFLICT BETWEEN PROTESTANT AND CATHOLIC—LUTHERAN CHURCH IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

THE first definite and desperate resistance to the established church in Germany was the Hussite War, and the peace of Westphalia which terminated the Thirty-Years War was the establishment on the partial ruins of Rome of Protestantism as the state religion of Germany. This transitional period extended from 1410 to 1648. It was a memorable epoch for the whole world in many ways. During it America was discovered, gunpowder and the printing press invented, or rather introduced into Europe, making, with Protestantism, four great powers in civilization, each adequate to a thorough and universal revolution. The glory of the former must be shared by Italy and Spain, of the latter by Germany and England, while the other two belong to Germany alone. Gunpowder radically changed the methods of warfare, and thus proved revolutionary to an extent not generally appreciated. Curiously, the first Protestant war with its guns sounded the death knell of chivalry and gave promise of the era of heavy battalions, as against sword and armor.

John Huss was born in 1369, and educated at the University of Prague, Bohemia, where he filled a professor's chair, and afterwards the rectorship. Before his day a few religious men had preached against the corruptions and abuses of the church, but Huss gave to the movement a tremendous impetus. He opposed the doctrine of absolution; the worship of saints and images; traffic in offices and indulgences from purgatory, and the practice of administering only the bread of the sacrament to lay communicants, reserving the sacramental wine for the clergy. The latter point was made specially prominent in the controversy, and conflict followed the teaching of Huss. The University was divided, the Romish sympathizers finally seceding and establishing the University at Leipzig. The emperor at that time was Sigismund. He was not particularly interested in the matter, but was drawn into the contest. An Œcumenical Council was called at the City of Constance, and Huss was guaranteed a safe conduct to and from the council by the Emperor. He attended, in the hope of being able to defend his doctrines in such an august body. But he was denied the privilege, and condemned, with-

out a hearing and contrary to the pledge given him, to be burnt at the stake unless he recanted. This he would not do, and so, on the sixth of July, 1415, this great man suffered martyrdom.

The blood of John Huss aroused a terrible furor, especially among the Bohemians. Nobles and people united in indignant protest against the council. That body stayed in session three years and a half, the burning of Huss being the one thing accomplished. Soon after its dissolution the Emperor departed for the East to wage war against the Turks upon the Danube, thinking little, apparently, about the Hussites. But they were terribly in earnest. They organized under the leadership of John Ziska, a noble of rare military genius and heroism. Having found the pledges of princes and prelates untrustworthy, they took matters into their own hands, resolved to protect themselves and command respect for their rights of conscience. Many of them were wild fanatics who anticipated the speedy second coming of Christ, but others were cool, brave champions of duty. Ziska introduced among his soldiers the "thunder-guns," small field-pieces which had first been used at the battle of Agincourt, between the English and the French, three years before. He also introduced the use of iron-plated flails with which to crack the helmets of the knights. Between the guns and the flails the peasants (for such the most of them were) of Ziska were an overmatch for the trained and disciplined regulars who rallied from far and near, at the call of the pope and the Catholic princes, to crush the Hussites.

John Huss Lecturing in the University of Prague.

The papal authorities cared far more for the rebellion in Bohemia than for the Moslem invasion on the Danube. The secular princes would have given up the contest in 1420, but the legate of the pope forbade any compromise with the heretics. For several years the conflict raged. In 1426 a Catholic army 200,000 strong was utterly routed by the Protestants, variously called "Hussites," "Orphans," and "Taborites." Ziska was slain at last, but his followers rallied under another leader and bravely demanded their rights. Unfortunately they were not always united, and the enemy was swift to take advantage of any dissension. In 1434 the Catholic forces so far succeeded in crushing the Taborites that from that date the Bohemian Reformation ceased to be dangerous to Rome, except as it had sowed the seed of Protestantism, and prepared the way for it. The next year Emperor Sigismund died, and with his death expired the Luxemburg dynasty which began with Rhodolph, successor to the Duke of Cornwall.

A few years before (1453) the Eastern or Byzantine empire had fallen. The Roman empire of Constantine and Justinian, so long a bulwark against the Saracens, fell at last, and Islam gained in Eastern Europe quite as much as it had lost in the West—Turkey avenged Spain. The Roman church looked on with indifference, caring more to suppress Protestantism than to check Mohammedanism, especially as the inroads of the latter were made at the expense, mainly, of the rival church.

There was some talk of another Crusade, but it died out barren of even endeavor. The people and princes had become too secular to engage in a "holy" war.

A little before the fall of Constantinople, about 1436, a German named John Gutenburg conceived the idea of casting movable types and setting them together to form words. It was a simple thing to do, but it was none the less the greatest discovery of all the ages, and did more than any other agency to enlighten Europe. It was a gradual discovery. The great demand for playing-cards must be credited with the parent idea. The figures used in making the "kings," "queens," "jacks," etc., of a pack were first cut on wooden blocks, to be dipped in ink, and then pressed upon the card paper. This device led to the carving of letters and words upon blocks so as to make a page. That was done in Holland as early as 1420, by means of which books were printed. The "Devil's Testament," as cards have been called, thus led to supreme good. Another preparation for the discovery was the invention of paper made from linen, a great relief from the expense of parchment and a prerequisite to printing. Paper-making in Germany dates from the beginning of the fourteenth century. John Gutenburg deserves much but not all the credit of types. Another name to be held in honor is that of Faust, a man of wealth who assisted Gutenburg, who was a poor man. The people suspected that printed books were the work of the Devil, and the priests eagerly encouraged the idea. This was not simply because they wished to prevent popular intelligence (ignorance and superstition going together), but because the making of manuscript books was an important branch of industry, and one which priests and monks monopolized. Their craft was in danger. They saw in movable types the death of their highly profitable monopoly. But none the less surely and swiftly did the art of printing spread, not only in Germany but all over Europe. One of the original Gutenburg Bibles was recently sold in New York City for $8,000.

Martin Luther, who really did more for civilization than any man of his time, was born at the little Saxon town of Eisleben, November 10, 1483. His father was a poor miner. Young Martin was a promising boy and early conceived the idea of getting an education. He sang songs beneath the windows of the rich, among other things, as a way of eking out a support in the pursuit of his studies, which he prosecuted at the university of Erfurt. He joined the order of Augustine monks, and was very highly esteemed by his associates and superiors. In 1508 Luther was appointed lecturer in Greek, and later, of theology at the then new university at Wittenberg. After two years he was sent to Rome on a special commission, where he beheld with amazement the secular character of the

papal court. His eyes were opened, but he had no thought of separation from the mother church until long after. In 1517 Pope Leo X., a great lover of art and luxury, undertook to replenish his exchequer by a wholesale traffic in indulgences. They were hawked about the country, the peddler of them in Germany, Tetzel, going so far as to sell pardons for all sins actually committed not only, but licenses to commit others with impunity. This aroused the righteous indignation of Luther, and on the 31st of October he boldly nailed to the door of the church at Wittenburg his ninety-five noted theses, or propositions in denial of the right to thus abet crime and vice.

LUTHER BURNING THE POPE'S BULL.

This holy zeal aroused fierce and bitter opposition. Dr. Luther was denounced as a Hussite. A council was called, and he was guaranteed immunity to and from it. He accepted, notwithstanding the fate of Huss. An attempt was made to condemn him in disregard of that guaranty, but the Emperor, Charles V., best known in connection with Spain, refused to be a party to such perfidy, and Luther departed from the Diet of Worms unmolested, after having boldly defended his position.

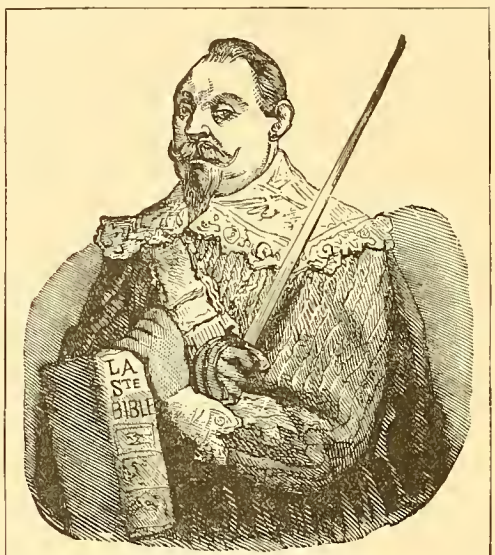
By a preconcerted plan he was kidnapped on the road by his friends and taken in disguise to the friendly castle of Wartburg, where he spent his time in making a translation of the Bible into the German language. "In that great work," says Mr. Taylor, "he accomplished more than a service to Christianity; he created the modern German language. Before his time there had been no tongue which was known and accepted throughout the whole empire." He was assisted in this great work by Philip Melancthon and other scholars. It was done with the utmost care, and is a monument marking the dawn of German literature.

The Emperor of Germany was also King of Spain, Naples, Sicily and Spanish America, spending very little time in his imperial dominions. Between wars with the Turks and the French he could not give much attention to ecclesiastical matters in Germany. This condition of things greatly favored the Protestant cause. Luther's policy was to win to his support as many as possible of the petty sovereigns. By his Bible and his preaching he aimed to reach the popular heart, and by his political policy to secure the protection of the real rulers of Germany. A popular uprising in Southern Germany occurred in 1525, the oppressed peasants making a bold strike for their rights. Luther wrote and spoke vehemently against them. His writings of a political nature present him in a very bad light. The only excuse for him is that by the policy he pursued he secured immunity for the great cause nearest his heart.

That uprising was a very serious calamity. It was a failure, and a costly one in every respect. It

was the result in large part of religious fanaticism. John of Leyden, leader of the Anabaptists, a sect of Millenarians who entertained numerous fantastic notions, was finally suppressed, and Lutheranism came out of the contest strong. In 1529 seven reigning princes, headed by Saxony, and fifteen sovereign cities, joined in a solemn *protest* against the resolution of the Emperor and the Catholic States to outlaw and crush out Luther and the doctrines promulgated by the Diet of Worms.

The next year a diet was summoned by the Emperor to meet at Augsburg. A statement of doctrine, prepared by Luther who was absent and Melancthon who was present, was offered as the views of the Protestants. That statement, called the "Augsburg Confession," is still the creed of the Lutheran church and is substantially identical with the creeds of the Evangelical churches of to-day.



GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

Luther escaped martyrdom, being as prudent as he was bold. Wars with other nations favored his immunity and the spread of his doctrines. Military necessity secured a truce, from time to time, and the father of the Reformation died before the great struggle for religious progress fairly began, his death occurring February 17, 1546. Martin Luther was the friend and counselor of all Protestant rulers, beloved by a vast following among the people, the first and greatest of the brilliant galaxy of reformers who were the pioneers of present religious liberty.

The Thirty-Years War was the next feature of German history worthy of mention. It dates from an outburst of mob violence at Prague, May 23, 1618, about a century after the Reformation was fairly begun. At that time four-fifths of the Germans were Protestants, including many of the princes; but the Hapsburgs continued to support the Papacy. The emperor at that time was Matthias. He was not for war, but the Jesuits were eager for it and plotted to make a local disturbance general, and the brother and successor of Matthias, Ferdinand, was wholly with them. So little, however, did the Protestant Electors appreciate the situation that they voted for Ferdinand without considering his ecclesiastical affinities of serious importance, and that notwithstanding the fact that he had as a Duke declared that he would rather rule over a desert than heretics. The bitterness of polemical controversy in the Protestant church was a great source of weakness. Calvinists and Lutherans were intense in their animosity to each other, and lines of theological thought almost too fine to be discernible served as ramparts behind which hostile sects showered abuse at each other. While the Catholics were harmonious, the Protestants invited attack by their dissensions. The Emperor conceived it possible to uproot Protestantism by a war of extermination against it, and the Protestants themselves were largely responsible for his thinking so.

At that time England, Holland, Denmark and Sweden were Protestant and the practical ruler of France, Cardinal Richelieu, had no sympathy with Ferdinand. The Protestants could have suppressed him, had they been at all sensible. Their blind factiousness encouraged him and involved the country in war for a generation, and a more desolating, brutal and fiendish struggle was never waged any where by any people. The Christians of that empire seemed to forget all scripture but the passage, "I came not to send peace, but a sword." To follow the bloody track of that mighty slaughter through its devious windings for thirty long years, would be a surfeit of horrors. When once the Protestants had their eyes opened to the situation, they formed a union for mutual defense and chose for their leader Christian IV., king of the then powerful Denmark. England and Holland furnished substantial aid. But there was no clearsighted and highminded appreciation of the struggle, on the part of those most interested.

There were several great reputations made during that war, but the names most entitled to recognition were those of Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus. The former was a soldier of fortune who allied himself to the Catholic cause. He had vast wealth, secured by two marriages, and he bought important estates which made him a prince. Wallenstein had a genius for war. He supported and paid his army by plunder, serving the Hapsburgs with conspicuous success. He was distrusted as aiming at imperial princes he would have made short work of the Hapsburgs, but he was regarded with suspicion and absolute animosity in some instances. He won several important victories, the most important of all being the one at Lutzen, November 6, 1632, which cost him his life. He fell at the head of his victorious troops, and even in death was "The Swede of Victory." Gustavus Adolphus gave vitality to the cause which cost him his own life.

The end was not yet. Year after year the con-

PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

honors, and suspected, at last, of designing to desert to the Protestant cause, and finally assasinated at the evident instigation of the Emperor in February, 1634. Gustavus Adolphus was quite the equal of Wallenstein in military genius and a man of high character. He came to the throne of Sweden in 1611, when he was seventeen years of age. A splendid specimen of a man in every way, he realized the actual issue at stake and embarked in the cause of Protestantism in Germany when he was thirty-four years of age, having already achieved important victories over the Russians. Had he been cordially supported by the German Protestant

flict raged. It developed into a struggle for life on the part of Protestantism and a struggle for territorial acquisition on the part of the petty princes and the foreign states. France was especially anxious that Germany should be so weakened that her own area could be extended northward, and with most consummate skill did Richelieu play his part with that object in view. Finally, in 1648, a peace was negotiated at Westphalia, and the guns of that most atrocious of all wars were spiked. And surely it was time. A population of thirty millions had been reduced to twelve millions. The livestock and products of the empire had been proportionate-

ly reduced. The civilization of Germany was set back two centuries. Demoralization and depopulation, poverty, crime and misery combined to produce a result of appalling desolation. "After the Thirty Years' War," says a great historian, "Germany was composed of 203 more or less independent, jealous and conflicting states, united by a bond which was more imaginary than real; and this confused, unnatural state of things continued until Napoleon came to put an end to it. All branches of industry had declined, commerce had almost entirely ceased, literature and the arts were suppressed, and except the astronomical discoveries of Copernicus and Kepler there was no contributions to human knowledge. Politically the change was no less disastrous. Germany, as a whole, lost her place among the powers of Europe. The Holy Roman Empire became a shadow." Famine and pestilence completed what had been begun by a war waged by one branch of the church for the extermination of a rival branch, resulting, however, in universal amnesty for all Germany except the Protestants of Austria. The Pope, Innocent X. tried to nullify the treaty and keep up the war, but his bull was disregarded and not allowed to be read in the empire. The horrible crusade against twenty-five million of Protestants was unavailing. The new sect was indeed crushed out of Spain, France and Italy, but in Germany, as in Holland, Sweden, England, Switzerland and Denmark, it had come to stay.

The name of Lutherans is borne by about 40,000,000 of people at the present time. No man born upon the continent of Europe ever had so grand a monument as that in perpetuation of his name and fame. In nearly every country of Christendom is the Lutheran church established. Its membership in the United States is fully equal to the total population of the thirteen states at the time they declared themselves independent of Great Britain. In Germany this church is a conservative element. Curiously, the name is not officially recognized by the church itself, but custom has so long applied it to the reformed church in its direct outgrowth from Luther that it is no longer resented.

The great name in the annals of the Lutheran church of America is Muhlenberg. There were several members of the family who rose to eminence, the latest being the author of the well-known hymn, "I would not live alway." That Dr. Muhlenberg was great-grandson of Heinrich Melchior Muhlenberg who in 1742 came to this country as a missionary, and founded the Lutheran Ministerium of Pennsylvania. He had been an instructor in Francke's Orphan-house in Germany, and so deeply was he imbued with pietism that the American branch of the Lutheran church is more spiritual, orthodox and conservative than the parent tree.

It is doubtful if Luther would feel as much sympathy, were he now upon the earth and in his normal frame of mind, with Protestant as with Catholic Germany, outside of the church which bears his name. The liberalism of Modern Germany may be called an outgrowth from the Reformation of the sixteenth century, but the connection is more historical than actual, the child bearing but little resemblance to the father. The present papists of Germany are more in accord with Luther than Tetzel. Writing in 1871, that great Catholic scholar Döllinger gave it as his solemn opinion that "no other man in the whole Christian era has given to his race as much as Luther gave to his—language, a manual of faith for the people, the Bible, the hymns. He alone has left the ineffaceable stamp of his own spirit alike upon the German tongue and the German mind. The very men among the Germans who from the depths of their souls abhor him as the terrible heresiarch and the betrayer of religion, are forced to speak in his words and think in his thoughts." The great uprising with which his name is associated was indeed religious primarily, but in effect it was hardly more a reformation than a renaissance.

NEW GERMANY.

CHAPTER XL.

THE MILITARY BEGINNING OF NEW GERMANY—AFTER THE THIRTY-YEARS WAR—RISE OF PRUSSIA—FREDERICK WILLIAM—FREDERICK THE GREAT AND MARIA THERESA—DIVISION OF POLAND—LIBERALISM IN THE ABSTRACT—FRENCH REVOLUTION AND GERMANY—NAPOLEON IN GERMANY—JENA, BLUCHER AND WATERLOO—1848—WILLIAM I. AND BISMARCK—SCHLESWIG AND HOLSTEIN—THE SEVEN-WEEKS WAR—NEEDLE AND KRUPP GUNS—AUSTRIA'S HUMILIATION—THE HOHENZOLLERNS AND NEW GERMANY—THE SPANISH CROWN AND THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR—THE SEVEN-MONTHS WAR; ITS HEROES, VICTIMS, BATTLES AND SIEGES—PARIS, ITS RESISTANCE AND CAPITULATION—TERMS OF PEACE—ALSACE-LORRAINE AND THE GREAT INDEMNITY—RECONSTRUCTED GERMANY—PRESENT STATES—BUNDESRATH AND REICHSTAG—COMPULSORY EDUCATION AND THE ARMY—AREA AND POPULATION OF PRESENT GERMANY.

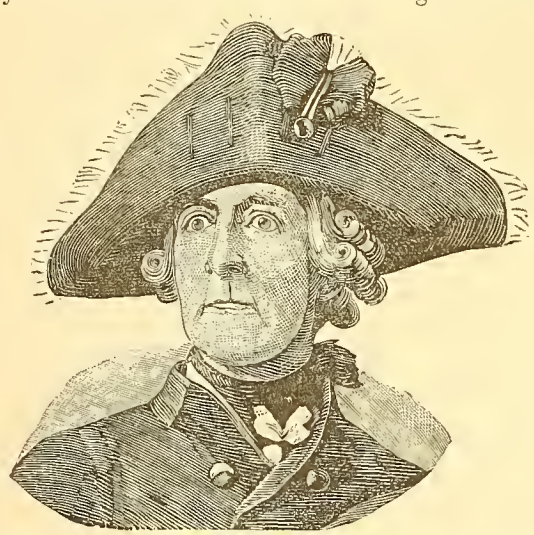
THE great Thirty-Years War, which extended from 1618 to 1648, was distinctively religious in origin and design; the Seven-Years War (1756–63) grew out of territorial greed. Frederick the Great of Prussia had seized the province of Silesia, and Maria Theresa wanted to recover it. After three bloody wars (1740–42; 1744–45; 1756–63) the attempt was entirely abandoned. That decisive advantage of Prussia had much to do with the fact that it has at last supplanted Austria as the head of Germany. In one sense, then, New Germany begins with the close of the Seven-Years War; but in a higher sense it dates from the Thirty-Years War, which determined the religious boundaries of continental Europe.

It was the middle of the seventeenth century when the great war of the Protestants and Catholics closed. Hildebrand estimates that German civilization was thrown back two hundred years by that desolating conflict. The picture which that brilliant essayist draws of Germany in the eighteenth century is glowing in the extreme: "Hundreds of flourishing cities were reduced to ashes; ground which had been tilled and plowed for ten centuries became a wilderness; thousands of villages disappeared; trees grew in the abandoned houses." The first event of real note was the rise of Prussia, already suggested, from an insignificant principality to the rank of one of the five great nations of Europe.

The first king of Prussia was crowned at the beginning of the eighteenth century, and the University of Berlin was founded the same year. That first of the Hohenzollerns to receive the royal crown, Frederick I., was not remarkable for anything. Not so his son and successor, Frederick William I. He was a very marked character. He came to the throne in 1713, just a year before the first of the Georges was raised from the Electorate of Hanover, one of the many petty states of Germany, to the British throne. It was about that time too that the Emperor of Germany, Charles VI., issued what was

called the "Pragmatic Sanction," establishing the order of succession to the throne for his dynasty, in consequence of which Maria Theresa, not yet born, succeeded to the crown of her father. There were thus the beginnings of several important matters. Frederick William I. was busy all his life with beginnings. By his parsimony and meanness he filled the coffers of the crown and accustomed his subjects to hardships. He had but one extravagance, a weakness for a body-guard of giants. For this eccentricity he squandered many thalers. A rude barbarian who made life in his household (private and official) one long misery, this king, when he died in 1740, was sincerely mourned by none. It is only charity to believe that a vein of insanity ran through his composition. A few months later Charles VI. also died. The former was succeeded by Frederick II., called Frederick the Great, the latter by the Empress Maria Theresa.

The childhood and youth of Frederick were miserable owing to the brutality of his father. He was a close student of Voltaire, whom he admired, and from whom he derived many broad and humane ideas, which resulted in important reforms. By him torture was abolished and religious liberty



FREDERICK THE GREAT.

established; witchcraft was no longer classed among the crimes. Frederick was in full sympathy with that class of philosophers of whom Voltaire was the chief. Of late years France and the whole world have learned philosophy of Germany, but in the eighteenth century the order was reversed. Frederick was a man of war, however, and not a student, except as studies and letters were a recreation. Hardly had he seized the scepter when he drew the sword and rushed into war with Austria. For five years with only slight rest there was bloodshed, other countries being drawn into it. In 1745 peace was restored, and on terms which were so advantageous to Prussia that Frederick was dubbed the Great thus early in his reign.

To those five years of war succeeded eleven years of peace. During that period Frederick did much to strengthen Prussia. Waste lands were restored, and civil institutions improved. The cultivation of the potato, strenuously resisted by the peasants, was introduced, and the general condition of the people greatly improved. In 1742 the King of Bavaria was chosen emperor of Germany by the electors, and crowned Charles VII. Maria Theresa in that dark day repaired to Hungary and threw herself upon the loyalty of the Hungarians. Their chivalric rally to her support made her one of the most powerful of sovereigns. In 1745 the emperor died, and his son was glad to surrender all claims to Austria to be confirmed in the title to Bavaria. The figure-head husband of the great Maria Theresa was nominal emperor. She arranged a coalition against Prussia with France and some minor powers, to go into effect in the spring of 1759, but Frederick stole a march on his enemies and took the initiative himself. For seven years the war raged. After the carnage and sacrifices of that struggle peace brought to Prussia increase of territory and general importance.

In one thing only were Frederick and Maria Theresa agreed—in the partition of Poland. That infamy, as seen in an earlier chapter, was mainly attributable to Catharine II. of Russia, and quite reluctantly consented to by the Austrian empress. The kings of Poland were elected, and the sovereign chosen in 1765 was a liberal, who allowed the Protestants religious liberty. The Catholics, who were largely in the majority, created civil war. This state of affairs was seized upon as a pretext for charging the Poles with unfitness for nationality. And so, on the 5th of August, 1772, those three crowned robbers took possession of about one-third of the kingdom of Poland, dividing between them about 1,000,000 square miles and 4,500,000 population. The region received by Frederick was peopled by Germans although Poles.

Frederick lived until 1786, and during the last years of his life the nation enjoyed peace. He rejoiced, as did Catharine, in the success of the American colonies. In the abstract, both the Prussian and the Russian sympathized with the spirit of freedom, but neither ever allowed sentiment to interfere with ambition.

Maria Theresa died in 1780, and her son, who had been crowned Emperor Joseph II. in her lifetime, survived her ten years. Both tried to improve the condition of their subjects by giving them just government, without loosening the reins of absolutism. The son was the most earnest in this endeavor. He was, in his way, a radical reformer, who tried to make his people noble in purpose and prosperous in every way. But his heart was better than his head, and he was grievously disappointed in the results attained. Imbued with the progressive ideas of the age, he tried to make Austria a model state. His epitaph, written by himself, was peculiarly appropriate: "Here lies a prince whose intentions were pure, but who had the misfortune to see all his plans shattered." Some good, however, resulted from the spirit or atmosphere of the court. The empress was a devout Catholic, although somewhat jealous of Rome; the emperor was not a Protestant, but he was the avowed enemy of papal arrogance. He spoke harshly of priests, and yet Austria remained a Catholic country. Frederick was a sneering skeptic.

MARSHAL BLUCHER.

Out of the French Revolution grew general war on the continent. The banished and fugitive princes and nobles of France fermented trouble, and the Republic at Paris found itself involved in military controversy with both branches of Germany (for Prussia was now the rival and peer of Austria). The conflict was waged in a somewhat sickly way until Napoleon came to the front.

In the Napoleonic war the battle of Austerlitz was the especial humiliation of Austria, but it did not stand alone. "Marengo's field" was won by Napoleon at Austria's expense June 14, 1800, and his Marshal, Moreau, achieved the brilliant victory of Hohenlinden on the third of December following. In 1805 Austria secured the alliance of England, Russia and Sweden against France. Napoleon thereupon marched to the very gates of Vienna and gained, December 2nd of that year, the great victory of Austerlitz. But Prussia still stood aloof. When, however, the conqueror organized the Confederation of the Rhine, designed to absorb the free cities and small principalities of Germany, and eclipse both Austria and Prussia, the latter took alarm. In 1806 war was declared by Frederick William. Two battles were fought in October of that year, Auerstadt and Jena. The first defeat was bad enough, but the second was utterly prostrating and deeply humiliating. Unlike Austerlitz, Jena was avenged. Waterloo retrieved the reputation of the Prussians and the fall of Paris, fifty year later, completed the redress. Even before Waterloo was fought Blücher had defeated a portion of the French army. The battle of Katzbach and Mockern, comparatively trivial engagements, proved Prussian victories. He was commander-in-chief of the Prussian army when the battle of Waterloo was fought. Napoleon hoped to defeat Wellington before his Prussian ally could join him, and he came very near doing it. "Night or Blücher," exclaimed Wellington. Only two days before, Blücher had been defeated at Leipzig, but he came to the rescue on the ever-memorable eighteenth of June with forces enough to turn the scale, and convert the impending defeat of Wellington into the most stupendous and important victory of modern times.

After the suppression of that "scourge of God," Napoleon Bonaparte, Germany, in common with all Europe, enjoyed a season of peace for thirty years. During that time literature and science made great progress. The terms of peace and reconstruction, adopted after Waterloo, insured civil and religious

liberty to the people. They could worship as they pleased, and every state (there were 39 in Germany) was guaranteed a representative government. The educated class were especially encouraged by the liberty enjoyed to demand more, and be content with nothing short of self-government. Not that all felt that way, but that among the students there was a very great pressure for republicanism. At last, in 1848, there was an outbreak of democracy. It accomplished very little. Many of the young men engaged in the vague and half-formed rebellion were obliged to seek safety in flight, and thousands found new and better homes in America. In Germany the uprising was mainly useful as political education, alike to subjects and sovereign. Indeed, all Europe received a most wholesome and beneficent development in the direction of larger liberty. To the United States that uprising proved highly important. A new class of emigration coming to these shores perceptibly raised the standard and improved the character of immigration from continental Europe. About that time, it may be added, the Irish famine drove hither an enormous number of ignorant peasants. The German influx was something of a counteractant.

EMPEROR WILLIAM I.

In 1857 the King of Prussia, Frederick William IV., a weak and feudalistic sovereign, was stricken with apoplexy, and his brother William, then sixty years of age, was made Prince Regent. At once the latter began the inauguration of some reforms in administration, and when he became William I. (1861) a new page was turned in German, and indeed, European history. Although an old man, he was blessed with great vigor of body and mind, and his reign became second only to that of Frederick the Great in point of influence upon the destinies of the people. He early recognized the consummate genius of Bismarck. Those two names must always be linked in fame. Neither ever showed sympathy with the cause of personal freedom, but sought the aggrandizement of the nation in the interest of the dynasty. As we write, Germany is in a ferment over the imperial rescript, or official manifesto, of the Emperor, to the effect that Germany is not governed by a ministry accountable to a parliament, but that the ministers are the mere tools of the sovereign, and that the sovereign is the state. In this document is seen the hand of the premier.

Bismarck was born on the family estate April 1, 1815. He early showed a taste for public life. His career began in diplomacy, 1852, except that he had previously been a short time in parliament. Kaiser William was not slow in recognizing his intense loyalty to imperialism, and his consummate ability as a statesman. He had from the first two ideas—the formation of a German empire with Austria left out, and the humiliation of France. The first was never concealed.

Bismarck attracted general attention for the first time in connection with the Schleswig-Holstein war. That was begun December 7, 1862. At first Austria helped Prussia, expecting to have one of the duchies, Schleswig or Holstein, for its share of the spoils. Against these two great German powers was arrayed, besides those little duchies, the feeble kingdom of Denmark. Of course the end could not be doubtful. A diplomatic war followed the close of actual hostilities. In that correspondence and those negotiations Count Bismarck (for he was not then a prince) won the admiration of the world by what may properly be called deceptive truthfulness. He said what he meant, and meant what he said. So unusual a thing was that in dip-

BISMARCK.

lomacy that his utterances were misinterpreted. The result was a misunderstanding which served as a pretext for Prussia to declare war against Austria, which it did in June, 1866.

On one side of the Seven-Weeks War, as it was called, was Prussia with nineteen millions of people; on the other, Austria with, including the allied German states, fifty millions. It seemed a rash proceeding on the part of Prussia to seek a quarrel against such odds. But hardly had the war begun before it was over, resulting in the utter overthrow of Austria. The Prussian army was supplied with the needle-gun and Krupp guns. The former were a great improvement upon the musketry of the Austrians, while the latter were no less superior to the cannons of the enemy. The respective commanders-in-chief were very unevenly pitted against each other. Prussia had that Wellington of the period, Von Moltke, while Austria had only Marshal Benedek. It was on the second of July that both sides rallied and met in full strength. "Marshal Benedek," says a recent historian, "after being forced back from the frontier, had taken position on the Elbe, with his front covered by that stream and the Bistritz. His right was protected by the fortress of Josephstadt, and his left by the fortress of Königgratz. Near his center was the village of Sadowa, and on the heights overlooking this village Benedek established his headquarters. His army numbered about 200,000 men. On the morning of the 3d of July the Prussian army began the engagement, resulting in Austrian defeat all along the line. This battle and victory is sometimes called Sadowa, sometimes Königgratz." The vanquished lost 20,000 killed, 18,000 prisoners. The victors lost 10,000 men. The battle was decisive. The Prussians followed up their advantage with swiftness, allowing no time for recuperation or alliance. There was no small likelihood of French intervention in favor of Austria. To head that off, the war had to be pushed to a speedy conclusion.

VON MOLTKE.

When the work of reconstruction came, the real object of Bismarck was disclosed. Schleswig and Holstein were almost forgotten. Austria ceased to be the great central and imperial power of Germany, and Prussia more than took its place. Instead of the old loose federation, with Austria at the head, came that close and really national union, the North-German Confederation, and that not so much with Prussia as the head as with Germany appended to Prussia. The people were at first delighted. The old dream of German nationality was realized at last.

In December, 1867, the constitution of the new union was submitted to the several states and ratified. All the German states, except Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden, twenty-two in number, belonged to the Union, and formed indeed one nation, under a common military, postal and financial system, similar in unity to the United States of America. Since then the authority of United Germany has been so far extended that the Hohenzollerns may be said to have the hereditary title to a firmly consolidated empire which embraces all Germany except Austria.

The new attitude of Prussia alarmed France, at least stimulated a desire to humiliate the "upstart" nation. The question of the Spanish crown furnished a pretext or occasion for war. There was talk of bestowing that crown, then without a head on which to rest, upon a Hohenzollern. The French professed to see in this a great indignity. For that family to be on two thrones not contiguous to each other, but on each side of France, was not to be tolerated. An imperious demand was made upon William that he should give a pledge to the effect that no member of his family should rule Spain. The demand was flatly refused. A declaration of war followed at once. The prince who had been proffered the crown had declined it, but that was not enough to satisfy Louis Napoleon. The formal declaration of war occurred July 19, 1870. The French people were delighted. In a few days both France and Germany had their armies in the field. On the fourth of July the Germans crossed the French frontier, assuming the aggressive. A long war was almost universally anticipated. King William was at the head of the German

army, in theory, but now, as in the war with Austria, Von Moltke was the real commander-in-chief, with the Crown Prince, Frederick William, next in rank. The Emperor, Louis Napoleon, was also the nominal head of the French army, giving the Prince Imperial his first baptism of blood; but Marshals MacMahon and Bazaine were the real leaders. For his blunders the latter was banished, while the former was accredited with doing the best that could be done and was subsequently honored with the presidency of the French Republic.

The first battle of the war was fought at Weissenburg August 4th, in which the French were defeated. Two days later another detachment of the two armies met at Worth, with the same result. The main army of the French was also attacked at Saarsbrucken, and driven back upon Metz. The battle of Vionville, on the frontier, was fought on the 16th, neither army gaining any considerable advantage. The decisive battle of the war was fought August 18th, and is known as the battle of Gravelotte. Both armies fought desperately, but the French were compelled to give way. The utmost activity followed, the Germans steadily gaining upon their adversaries until finally, September 1st, the battle of Sedan was fought. Before night came on Napoleon III., who was present with his army, wrote to King William, "Not having been able to die at the head of my troops, I lay my sword at your majesty's feet." The French prisoners numbered 25,000. The entire army surrendered.

ENTRY OF GERMAN ARMIES INTO PARIS.

The war seemed to be over, but events were transpiring at Paris which postponed the final settlement for some time. Paris rose in political revolution against the empire not only, but boldly defied the invader. The Emperor could deliver his imperial crown, but not the nation, certainly not the capital. Henceforth the war was a siege, or a series of sieges and bombardments. Strasburg held out nobly, and Paris desperately. The besiegers cut off the supplies of Paris. Strasburg fell September 27th, Metz a month later, and on the 28th of the succeeding January Paris formally surrendered.

In the settlement which followed, the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine were wrenched from the power of France, to the great grief of the people who are Germans by blood, but French in their sympathies. France thus lost a territory of 5,500 square miles and more than one and a half millions of people. The siege of Paris and the reduction of the military spirit of the French people had occupied, all told, a period of seven months, and the losses of property had fallen chiefly upon France. The terms of peace added to the losses of territory and perishable property the exaction of a money indemnity (cash in hand, too) of five thousand million francs ($1,000,000,000). The promptness with which the people rose to the demands of the occasion was astonishing. Convinced that the only way to rid Paris and France of the hostile army was to raise the indemnity, they took their hard-earned savings from their hiding places, poured them into the treasury faster than the government could issue bonds, and in excess of

the national requirement. In a few years it was found that Germany was injured far more than France by that indemnity. The increase in the national debt imposed no serious burden upon taxpayers, while the spirit of wild speculation crazed the Germans. It was a curious instance of "the biter bitten." The French people were enriched by the exchange of hoarded, unproductive coin for interest-bearing bonds—*rentes*.

During those seven months there had been seventeen great battles fought and fifty-six minor engagements; twenty-two fortified places were taken; 385,000 soldiers (including 11,360 officers) were taken prisoners. The losses of cannon were 7,200, and of small arms 600,000. Such prodigious captures and indemnity were never known before in the annals of war.

We turn now to the reconstruction of the German Empire and its firm establishment upon a Prussian basis. What the Seven-Weeks War had fairly commenced the Seven-Months War rendered complete. The Teutonic dream of liberty and union had now been one-half realized—the latter had been secured. It was to a large extent at the expense of liberty, but it was not at first appreciated that unity meant imperialism.

The present German Empire consists of four kingdoms, namely, Prussia with its thirteen provinces, and Bavaria, Saxony and Wurtemburg; six Grand Duchies, Baden, Hesse, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Shetitz, Oldenburg and Saxe-Weimar, Eisenach; five Duchies, Saxe-Meininger, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Saxe-Altenburg, Brunswick and Anhalt; seven Principalities, Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwartzburg-Sondershauen, Waldeck, Reuss-Elder line, Reuss-Younger line, Schaumburg-Lippe and Lippe-Detmore; three free cities, Hamburg, Lubeck and Bremen, and the "imperial-lands," Alsace-Lorraine. The King of Prussia is by virtue of that kingship, president of the confederacy, emperor or *Deutscher Kaiser*.

Corresponding to our Congress is a *Bundesrath* and *Reichstag*. The former, or senate, has at least one representative from each state, Alsace-Lorraine alone excepted, and some have several, the "empire state" of Prussia seventeen. The Reichstag has one member for each district of 100,000 inhabitants. If no dissolution occurs, the Diet or Congress expires by constitutional limitation in three years. Each state has its own constitution and local self-government.

Universal education is compulsory, and therein largely may be found the secret of Prussian superiority in war over both Austria and France. The relative military strength of these nations, by numbers and expenditure, are given in a subsequent table, but the power of education admits of no statistical measurement. Every German is liable to military duty, and must enter the army at the age of twenty years. After three years of actual service he is put upon the reserve roll, in time of peace for four years. At the expiration of that time he is enrolled in the "landwehr," or militia, for five years, and then finally in the "landsturm," a home-guard, until the age of fifty.

Prussia has an area of 137,066 square miles, and a population of about 25,000,000, which is about equal to the total of the other states constituting the German Empire, the entire area of the empire being 212,091 square miles, population December 1, 1875, 42,727,360. The system of military proscription is a constant incentive to emigration, and very materially lessens the population of the empire.

INTELLECTUAL GERMANY.

CHAPTER XLI.

KINGDOM OF THE MIND—TARDY AND SUDDEN DEVELOPMENT OF GERMAN THOUGHT—AN INTELLECTUAL QUADRANGLE—GERMAN LITERATURE, LESSING, KLOPSTOCK, WIELAND, HERDER, SCHILLER, GOETHE, RICHTER AND HEINE—THE COURT OF WEIMAR—GERMAN MUSIC, KEISER, HANDEL, BACH, GLUCK, HAYDN, MOZART, BEETHOVEN, MENDELSSOHN, WAGNER—GERMAN PHILOSOPHERS—KANT, FICHTE, SHELLING, HEGEL, BUCHNER AND HAECKEL—GERMAN UNIVERSITIES—LEIBNITZ AND BERLIN—HALLE UNIVERSITY AND THE HALLE SCHOOL—HEIDELBERG UNIVERSITY AND ITS LIBRARY—GERMAN SPECIALISTS—HUMBOLDT.

IN following the ordinary course of history the proudest claims of Germany to honorable distinction hardly attracted attention, being entirely disconnected from political or military affairs. In all other countries "the scholar in politics" has been a very considerable personage; but Intellectual Germany may be said to have constituted a world by itself, sublimely indifferent to and independent of the fortunes of state.

"The Aborigines of Germany," says Taylor, "had their bards, their battle-songs and their sacrificial hymns when they first became known to the Romans." Charlemagne gathered those crude beginnings of literature, so far as possible, into a library which his imbecile and superstitious son, Ludwig the Pious, committed to the flames. In the *Nibelungenlied* we have a no less crude attempt at poetical composition. That barbaric epic resembled Homer only as the jagged rock resembles the polished statue. Poor in itself, it led to nothing better. On the contrary, it was not until the magnetic genius of Luther set Europe aglow that any name worthy of mention appeared in the literary annals of Germany, and even Luther excelled more as a translator than an author of originality. The seed which he sowed perished as utterly as did the grain which Karl the Great had garnered. The cruel heel of the Thirty-Years War crushed the intellectual life of Germany, and it was not until the middle of the eighteenth century that it revived and became a power. We shall see that English literature was a gradual growth of many centuries; but the darkness of Medieval Germany was unrelieved by any flashes of light. There was nothing precocious about its intellectual development. When, however, the light broke, it fairly flooded the land, nay, rather, the whole world. Hardly had the morning star appeared before the mid-day sun ruled the heavens. Herein Germany was phenomenal and in the highest degree sensational.

Intellectual Germany may be said to be quadrangular, literary, musical, philosophical and erudite. Each side of this quadrangle has such marked individuality as to require distinct consideration.

German literature, in any high sense, began with and reached its summit in that splendid gal-

axy, Lessing (1729); Klopstock (1724); Wieland (1733); Herder (1744); Schiller (1759); Richter (1762); Heine (1799). The figures appended to each name give the year of the birth of each. It will be seen that they all belong to the eighteenth century, and in actual literary labors they were almost contemporaneous. In them we have the great immortals of the purely literary phase of German thought.

Lessing was a Saxon. His *Minna Von Bornhelm* was the first national drama of Germany, and produced a profound sensation. But it was as a critic that he excelled. He set in motion the critical faculty of the nation, substituting intelligent doubt for blind credulity. He died in 1781. It has been pertinently said of Lessing, "To him religion was not obedience, but insight; morality not duty, but wisdom; poesy not inspiration, but taste." His *Laocoön*, a series of critiques, was a prodigiously revolutionary work.

Klopstock was also born in Saxony. Strange as it may seem at this day, it took great courage to even attempt, in his time, to build a German literature. Even Frederick the Great, with all his admiration for literary ability, scouted the idea. Klopstock was not deterred by the absence of encouragement, and, it may be added, of genius. He was a poet of only mediocre power. "He was the father of German poetry, not because he created it, but because he made it possible—not on account of his genius, but on account of his standpoint." The pioneer poet of his country, he blazed a few trees as he painfully picked his way through the Black Forest. He died in 1803.

Wieland, like Klopstock, produced nothing which was in itself particularly meritorious. A prose translation of Shakspeare was the first introduction of the great dramatist to the German public. *Oberon*, a romantic epic, was Wieland's best production from 1772 until his death, 1813. He resided at Weimar, and with Goethe, Schiller and Herder rendered that otherwise petty court one of the grandest in all history. He was a natural poet, albeit of no very high order. Weimar is a small city, the capital of the Grand Duchy of Saxe-Weimar, which may be said to live upon the remembrance of the eminent authors just named. No other town was ever blessed with such an array of talent at one time.

Herder was a Prussian, the son of a schoolmaster, and very much of his life was spent in educational labors. It may be said that teaching was his trade, literature his relaxation. He was more critical than creative. His central idea was that the highest works of art, literary, or otherwise, are the most distinctively national. By instilling that conviction into the German mind, he, like Lessing, Klopstock and Wieland, contributed greatly to the development of a thoroughly national literature. Perhaps the best known of his works is *Letters on Hebrew Poetry*. He too died in 1803.

In all the chief cities of Germany may be found statues in honor of the most popular of all the poets of that people, Johann Christoph Friedrich von Schiller, and upon the hundredth anniversary of his birth, 1859, a "Schiller-fund" of several hundred thousand dollars was raised, the income from which is to be devoted to the maintenance of indigent authors. In him the Germans saw realized in a pre-eminent and peculiarly popular form the ideal national poet for whom Lessing, Klopstock, Wieland and Herder prepared the way. He excelled in two lines, as a dramatist and a lyrist. His *Robbers* and *Wallenstein* are masterpieces of dramatic literature. His minor productions are remarkable for exquisite finish and splendor of diction. A military surgeon by education, he made great sacrifices to his lofty art. He died at Weimar when only in his forty-sixth year. Three years before he had been made a baron of the realm by the Emperor Francis II. Carlyle says of Schiller, "He was a high ministering servant at truth's altar, and bore him worthily in the office which he held."

VON SCHILLER.

John Wolfgang Von Goethe, a native of Frankfort-on-the-Main, is acknowledged as the foremost man of literary Germany. For many years he was recognized as an almost autocratic authority. His great novel *Wilhelm Meister* is the most famous work of fiction in the German tongue, the only one, in fact, which may be said to enjoy a world-wide reputation, unless it be his *Sorrows of Werther*. He was a profound and varied student of nature, being

well-versed in many sciences. He lived to the ripe old age of 83, retaining his superb and manifold faculties to the last. His was a life of luxury, his very labors being sources of delight to him. Born of wealthy parents, he never knew the hardships and disappointments of ordinary experience. In him we see the best results of good fortune. Of his greatest work, *Faust*, Bayard Taylor, to whom the English-reading public is indebted for a masterly translation, has this to say:

GOETHE.

"There is nothing in the literature of any country with which we can compare it. There is no other poem which, like this, was the work of a whole life, and which deals with the profoundest problems of all life. It is so universally comprehensive that every reader finds in it reflections of his faith and philosophy. * * The poem embodies all the finest qualities of Goethe's mind—his rich, ever-changing rhythm, his mastery over the elements of passion, his simple realism, his keen irony, his serene wisdom, and his most sacred aspiration. The more it is studied the wider and further it spreads its intellectual horizon, until it grows to be so far and dim that the physical and the spiritual spheres are blended together. Whoever studies *Faust* in connection with the works of other German authors cannot but admit that the critic is not wholly mistaken who asserts that the single elements which separately made his compeers great have combined to make one man greatest; that Klopstock's enrichment of the language, Lessing's boldness and clearness of vision, Wieland's grace, Herder's universality, and Schiller's glory of rhythm and rhetoric are all united in the immortal works of Goethe."

From Goethe to poor Heinrich Heine is a long step; but the latter name is too frequently mentioned in general literature to be passed over in silence. A Jew by birth, he was by no means "a Hebrew of the Hebrews." On the contrary, he was singularly deficient in the thrifty qualities of his race, and he hated business intensely. Audacious in ridicule, he paid no heed to the probable effect upon his own fortunes of his merciless criticisms and lampoons. He was the poet of every-day life, his subjects being simple and his treatment brief. Fifty years ago he published his first volume of poetry. Its popularity was wonderful. Most of his time was spent in Paris, where he died in 1856. He was deeply imbued with democratic ideas and radical principles. Indeed, he was more French than German in his type of mind and tastes. It was thirty years from the publication of his first volume until his death, during which period he may be said to have possessed without enjoying a wide popularity. With all his faults, Heine exerted, on the whole, a wholesome influence upon German literature, especially in rebuking affectation and knocking from under it the stilts of romanticism. His later productions were not up to his early ones in merit, for his intellectual faculties were as prematurely senile as Goethe's were abnormally vigorous at fourscore.

It remains to speak of only one more member of the German family of letters, Richter, better known by his literary name of "Jean Paul." He was the humorist *par excellence* of German authors. His private life has been called "a long inheritance of privation." His death occurred in 1825. He was neither great nor small: he was unique. His admirers class him with Hood and Douglas Jerrold.

RICHTER.

The Germans are remarkable for their love of and attainments in music. During the sixteenth century there were a few symptoms of musical talent, but that was all. In the seventeenth century the princes began to have operas performed at their courts. The first public performance of an opera in Germany was at Hamburg in 1678. In that period lived Keiser, a composer, who once enjoyed a splendid reputation. He wrote much, but his operas and cantatas were harsh, and deficient in melodious strains. But the great name of this period

was Handel, born in Halle, Saxony, 1685. Most of his life was spent abroad, especially in London, where he died in 1759, but he was none the less a thorough German. He composed much which was not of the very highest order, more particularly in the operatic line. His genius lay in the direction of oratorio. The *Messiah* is his grandest work, and in all music can be found nothing more sublime. Mozart declared it impossible to improve his choruses. The *Messiah* was written for the city of Dublin. It made him the musical idol of England, which he remained until his death. His bones rest in Westminster Abbey.

HANDEL.

Bach is an illustrious name in musical history. John Sebastian, born at Eisenach in 1685, was *the* Bach, but for more than two centuries the family was distinguished as musicians. The first to gain a place in history was Veit. He was a Hungarian, and settled in Thuringia in 1600. The one member of the family to gain a world-wide reputation, served as organist and concert-master in various places until at the age of thirty-eight he was chosen musical director of the St. Thomas School, Leipsic. There he spent twenty-seven years, and the prominence of Leipsic as a center of musical education is very largely due to John Sebastian Bach. He was a voluminous composer. "In nearly every field of his art," says Frothingham, "he was a discoverer, in some he was a prophet of future discoveries. The fame of Bach has been increasing since his death. For generations to come they who study the difficult science of music will go to him as students of literature or painting go to the grand masters."

For the improvement of dramatic music the public is very especially indebted to Christopher Gluck, who was born in 1714. He was educated at Milan and spent much of his time abroad, but his influence was most felt in his native land. After hearing Gluck's great opera of *Iphigenia* at Weimar, Schiller wrote, "Never has any music affected me so purely, so supremely, as this; it is a world of harmony piercing straight to the soul, and dissolving it in the sweetest, loftiest melancholy." His death occurred at Vienna, November 15, 1787.

A still greater name in music is Joseph Haydn, the son of a poor Austrian wheelwright and sexton. He early drifted to Vienna. In 1760, when he was twenty-eight years of age, his hitherto luckless life turned, and for thirty years his circumstances were easy and auspicious. He was a very devout Papist. Haydn is accounted the father of symphony and of the stringed quartette. Instrumental music received from him its most rapid development. The *Creation* is one of his oratorios. The leading qualities of his compositions are said to be lucidity of ideas, symmetry in their treatment and finish in their development. Death came to him in Vienna, May 26, 1809.

Among those who sat lovingly and docilely at the feet of the father of symphony was Mozart, who spoke of him as "papa Haydn." He was born at Salzburg in 1756, and died at Vienna in 1791. Short as was his life it was long, musically speaking. He began to play the piano with very considerable accuracy as early as four years of age. He began composition at eight years of age. His older sister, Maria Anna, was also a remarkable musician. While they were very small children the father made concert tours with them, and everywhere they excited amazement and admiration. The last seven years of his life were given to composition, undisturbed by the necessity of teaching or performing for a livelihood. The splendid operas, *Il Nozze di Figaro* and *Don Giovanni*, were the most illustrious of his compositions. Although Mozart lived and died in Vienna, was composer to the court, and is considered the greatest composer of the world, from the combined versatility and power of his genius, Farnham writes of his burial, "On a dismal day of rain, unfollowed by a single friend, the bodies of Mozart and fifteen other dead were hurried through the streets of Vienna to the common burying-ground of the poor, and his grave is now unknown." This was the melancholy end of one whose name is imperishable.

MOZART.

In the latter half of the eighteenth century there lived at Bonn a tenor singer to whom was born in 1770 a son, who may be called the Mont Blanc of music, Ludwig von Beethoven. He was a student of Haydn and Mozart, and like them he long resided at Vienna. He seemed to have fairly entered upon

a brilliant career when deafness came upon him. For a large part of his life he was totally deaf. But he none the less effectively gave his life to composition. His affliction isolated him from society and tinged his productions with melancholy. Symphonies and sonatas, remarkable for richness in ideas and sentiment, no less than for fidelity to the highest laws of composition, show him to have been a man of stupendous power. In a strictly intellectual point of view Beethoven ranks at the very head of his profession. This sad and solitary man died in the year 1837.

BEETHOVEN.

In 1809 there was born in the family of a wealthy Hebrew of Hamburg, Felix Bartholdy Mendelssohn. After receiving a thorough education and devoting some time to travel, he made his home at Leipsic. He established the conservatory there, and contributed powerfully to its development as the musical capital of the world. His was a sweet and lovely character, a charming life and a high order of genius. The oratorio of *Elijah* was his, but he was most at home in the composition of piano music. As a pianist he was one of the greatest in his day, and that is much to say, for Liszt, Schumann and Chopin were contemporary masters of the pianoforte. Of his works it is affirmed by a competent judge, "They are a worthy culmination of the art and science of his predecessors, the latest masterpieces of the purely classic school, and just preceded the rise of the music of the future, exquisite and beyond criticism, except that they are, as Tennyson would say, 'faultily faultless.'"

The "music of the future" calls to mind the name of Wagner, the last in the musical list of Intellectual Germany. This son of a police actuary was born at Leipsic in 1813. He became especially well known in America from the composition of the Grand March for our Centennial Celebration, 1876. He composed those popular operas, the *Flying Dutchman, Lohengrin* and *Tannhauser*. But his great work is the threefold opera of the *Nibelungen Ring*. In the summer of 1876 it was performed at his home, Beireuth, in a theater of his own design, by an orchestra composed of the best musicians of Germany. The term "music of the future," was originally bestowed in derision, but so brilliant was the success at Beireuth that scorn was turned to admiration. Like Browning and Walt Whitman in poetry, and Carlyle in prose, Richard Wagner truly says of himself, "I move with entire freedom, and disregard of all theoretical scruples."

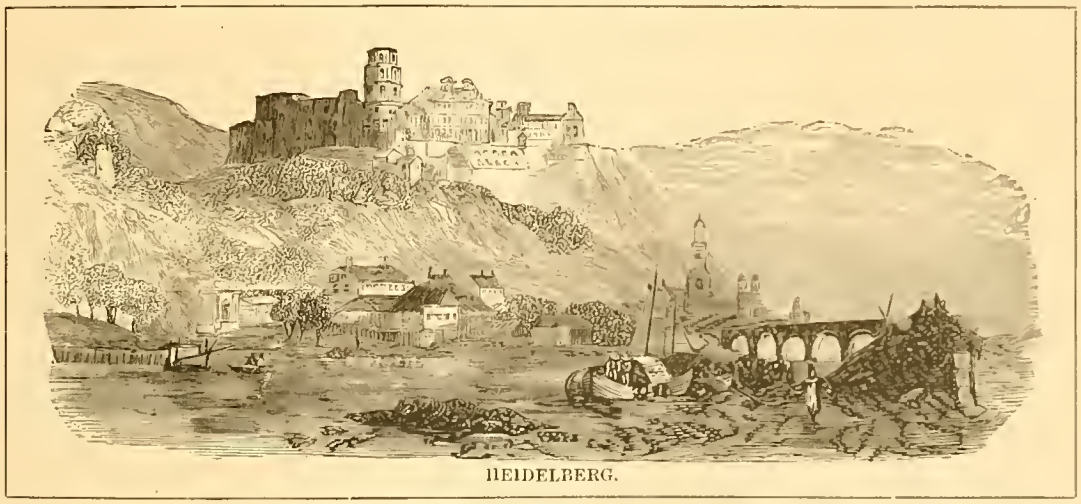
German philosophy is a term often heard, as if there were a unity in the metaphysical life of Germany. There are indeed clearly traceable and strongly marked national peculiarities of thought and style, subtile resemblances; but each great name stands for a distinctive idea.

The father of German philosophy was Immanuel Kant, born at Konigsberg, Prussia, in 1724. He was a Scotchman by ancestry, although in habits of life and modes of thought preeminently Teutonic. Spinoza, who is sometimes spoken of as a German, belonged to the Dutch City of Amsterdam and the Hebrew race. Kant first attracted the attention of the intellectual world by his *Critique of Pure Reason*, which was an era in philosophy. In style it is cumbersome and awkward to the last degree. He regarded psychology as the basis of philosophy and the search for the First Cause as fruitless. Kant lived to the ripe old age of eighty, and to the last remained serenely self-centered in his quiet little home of Konigsberg. Fame seemed to make no impression upon him, and the great critic was indifferent to criticism.

Next to Kant the great name in German philosophy is Fichte, a disciple and peer of the master of transcendentalism. Jena, then the leading university of Germany, offered him the professorship of philosophy in 1793. His life was not like Kant's, serene. His extreme liberalism raised up enemies. He was driven from Jena, only to find chairs of philosophy awaiting him at Erlangen and Berlin. His life terminated in 1814.

Schelling and Hegel, personal friends, were the founders of bitterly hostile rival schools or theories of philosophy. The former was born in Wurtemberg in 1775, the latter in Stuttgard in 1770. Just what the philosophy of either was, is still a matter of dispute between philosophical students and writers. Schelling lectured at Berlin for many years,

reaching the eightieth year of his age. In 1818 Hegel came to Berlin as a university professor, where he resided until his death, 1831. Numerous were the disciples of these metaphysicians, and powerful was the influence upon the nation of their philosophy. Not that any considerable proportion of the people perplexed themselves with their abstruse theories and disputations; but the spirit of free thought, of downright skepticism, which pervaded the metaphysicians came to be the most distinguishing characteristic of the German mind. The country of Luther and the pietists became the land of unbelief. Instead of the bitter scoffing of the French school, there was a lofty, calm and imperious contempt for all which was thought to savor of superstition.



HEIDELBERG.

The most positive and intelligible expression of disbelief is the *Force and Matter* of Prof. Büchner. That brilliant no less than learned German distinctively asserts and elaborately argues that what is known of nature proves both the non-existence of a personal deity and the mortality of man. He goes further than the very radical Spencer, Mill and Haeckel. He positively denies where they merely decline to asseverate.

What Denslow calls "the most important scientific and philosophical work of this century," *The Evolution of Man*, was produced by Ernst Haeckel. This latest, if not greatest, of German philosophers was born in Potsdam, Prussia, February 16, 1834. He belongs to the University of Jena as lecturer on zoology. He applies philosophy to science, and shows their essential and sublime harmony. He may be said to unite the reasoning of Herbert Spencer with the patient research of Charles Darwin.

Germany is noted for its universities and its erudition. The University at Berlin, founded in 1810, grew out of a scientific society organized little over a century before by the great pioneer of German philosophy, Leibnitz, a graduate of Leipsic, and a man of wonderful versatility. So far ahead of his age was he that when philosophy gained a foothold it came quite independent of his writings. The university which grew out of his society has over three thousand students in constant attendance, and numbers among its former professors of renown, Humboldt, Neander, Schleiermacher, Virchow, Richte, Fichte, and Hegel.

The university of Halle was founded in 1694. In 1817 it absorbed the university of Wittemburg which dated from 1502. Its rank is especially high in theology and cognate branches of learning. The great critical student of the Bible, Gesenius, was one of its professors from 1810 to 1842. In those palmy days of the institution there were over a thousand students. There are about that number at the present time. The "Halle School" is a term applied to the religious views which long distinguished Halle as the great seat of evangelical learning in Germany. The founder of that school was Spener, while Francke, Breithaupt and Lange were eminent names in it. Unlike most Germans, including the clergy, the members of the Halle School devoutly believe

in special Providence, plenary inspiration, and are truly orthodox in belief.

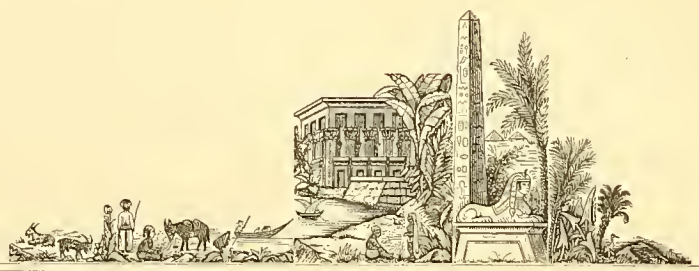
The oldest of the twenty-two universities of the present empire is that at Heidelberg, a romantic place, also famous for its schloss, or castle, founded in 1836; the youngest is that of Strasburg, founded 1872. About twenty thousand students attend these universities. The one at Heidelberg has a library of 200,000 volumes, a zoological museum, and other facilities for the study of scientific subjects. It is a famous resort for medical and divinity students. Many foreigners repair thither to perfect their education.

The peculiarity of German scholarship is its exceptional thoroughness. The professors devote themselves to minutely small fields of research, and by exploring every nook and corner, are enabled to thoroughly understand them. It is this peculiarity which has placed modern Germany at the front in erudition. Every branch of study, philological, historical or scientific, has received from that microscopical method a fullness of development which would have been impossible otherwise. By this careful and exhaustive method the Germans have been enabled to make many highly important contributions to the stock of human knowledge. To German erudition belongs the credit of discerning the path of civilization in prehistoric times by the clew of comparative philology, and this is only one illustration among many of hardly less importance to the world. German erudition is not personal like the literature, philosophy and music of Germany. It was and is the all-pervasive atmosphere of the nation in its intellectual development.

We cannot better close this chapter than by referring to Alexander von Humboldt, who, taking it all in all, deserves the very highest rank in intellectual Germany. Born at Berlin September 14, 1769, it has well been said that he was to science what Shakspeare has been to the drama. He combined patient research into minutia with grand powers of centralization, discerning the relations of nature's infinite parts to her grand totality. Parbach, Mullerus and Copernicus, Germans all, contributed to astronomy in its mere infancy, but Humboldt pointed out the connection between phenomena, astronomical precession, geological transformations, and botanical and zoological development, showing the inexorable reign of law. "We associate the name of Humboldt," says Ingersoll, "with oceans, continents, mountains and volcanoes; with the great plains, the wide deserts, the snow-tipped craters of the Andes; with primeval forests and European capitals; with wildernesses and universities; with savages and savans; with the lonely rivers of unpeopled wastes; with peaks and pampas and steppes, and cliffs and crags; with the progress of the world; with every science known to man and every star glittering in the immensity of space. The world is his monument; upon the eternal granite of her hills he inscribed his name, and there upon everlasting stone his genius wrote this sublimest of truths: 'THE UNIVERSE IS GOVERNED BY LAW.'"

HUMBOLDT.

COPERNICUS



AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

CHAPTER XLII.

GERMAN AND SEMI-GERMAN—DATE OF THE DUAL EMPIRE—AUSTRIA AS A COUNTY—THE HAPSBURG AND THE HOHENZOLLERN—RHODOLPH AND OTTOCAR—THE DUCHY AND ARCHDUCHY OF AUSTRIA—MODERN AUSTRIA—HUNGARY AND THE MAGYARS—HUNGARIAN HISTORY—THE HAPSBUROS IN HUNGARY—OLD AND NEW POLICY—"KAISER" OF AUSTRIA, AND EMPEROR-KING—PRESENT GOVERNMENT OF THE EMPIRE—REICHSRATH AND REICHSTAG—RELIGION AND EDUCATION—BOSNIA AND HERVEGOVINA—LICHTENSTEIN—CITIES OF THE EMPIRE—LETTERS.

THE German empire is the culminating point, politically, of German history; but it does not by any means include all of Germany. Before we can dismiss from consideration the Teutons, and pass on to their neighbors, the French, we must finish the record of German and semi-German nations not included in that imperial confederation, the chief of which has its capital at Vienna.

The present duality, suggested by the title to this chapter, with the peculiar system of government involved, dates from 1867, since which time there has been harmony and every prospect of a permanent union. Prior to that time the proper mode of expression would have been, Austria and Hungary. Austria may be said to be an outgrowth from a county. Rhodolph, son of Albert IV., Count of Hapsburg, was the founder of it. He was born in 1218. He was a bold, rude fighter. By degrees he extended his authority until in the latter part of the thirteenth century he was elected Emperor of Germany, or, as it is some times expressed, "King of the Romans, by choice of the Electors of Germany." The intelligence of his election was conveyed to him by his nephew, Frederick of Hohenzollern. Thus at the very threshold do we meet the two great royal family names still regnant in the two nations of German-speaking peoples. A contemporary bishop who was not a little displeased with the election, exclaimed, "Sit fast, great God, or Rhodolph will occupy thy throne!"

The most formidable rival of Rhodolph for imperial greatness was Ottocar of Bohemia, originally a very powerful sovereign. For some time there was war between them, resulting in the subjugation of Ottocar. That king was obliged to confine his sovereignty to Bohemia and Moravia, surrendering all claims to the Duchies of Austria, Stygria, Crinthia and Carniola. At Vienna, then as now the capital of Austria, Rhodolph fixed his royal residence and made it the paramount object of his life to secure Austria as a permanent possession for the House of Hapsburgh.

The duchy, or rather archduchy, of Austria, the nucleus around which has grown the empire of that name, has an area of 12,270 square miles, is bounded on the south by Styria, on the west by Bavaria, on the east by Hungary, and on the north by

Bohemia and Moravia. Intersected by the Danube and divided into Upper and Lower Austria by the river Enns, it has now a population of about three millions. The Austro-Hungarian monarchy is an empire with an area of 240,348 square miles and a population of over thirty-seven millions of souls. It was not until the reign of Ferdinand IV., in the present century, that the duchy of Austria was raised to the dignity of an archduchy. The son of Rhodolph, Albert I., was also Emperor of Germany. His grandson, Frederick III., was not., but Albert V., of Austria, became Albert II. of Germany. That was early in the fifteenth century, and from that time on for four centuries the election of Emperor of Germany fell to the House of Hapsburg almost as a matter of course, and Austria had no separate history worthy of note during that period.

Turning now to Hungary, we find the countries of the Hungarian crown to consist of Hungary proper, Transylvania, Croatia and Slavonia, with an area of 99,717 square miles and a population of about fifteen millions. Hungary proper has an area of 68,583 square miles and a population of about eleven millions. Nearly one-half of the people are Magyars, and they give to the country its distinctive characteristics. Next to them in numbers and influence are the Slavs. The Magyars came into notice in the latter part of the ninth century. They are allied at once to the Turks and the Finns. They have been aptly described as "a high-spirited, proud and generous people, richly gifted in every respect, in body strong, mentally bright, and possessed of an inexhaustible energy." In practical results, however, they can boast but little. That portion of the Roman Empire which they overran had been swept over before by the Huns and the Avars, the former leaving little behind them to mark their ravages except the name which the country now bears.

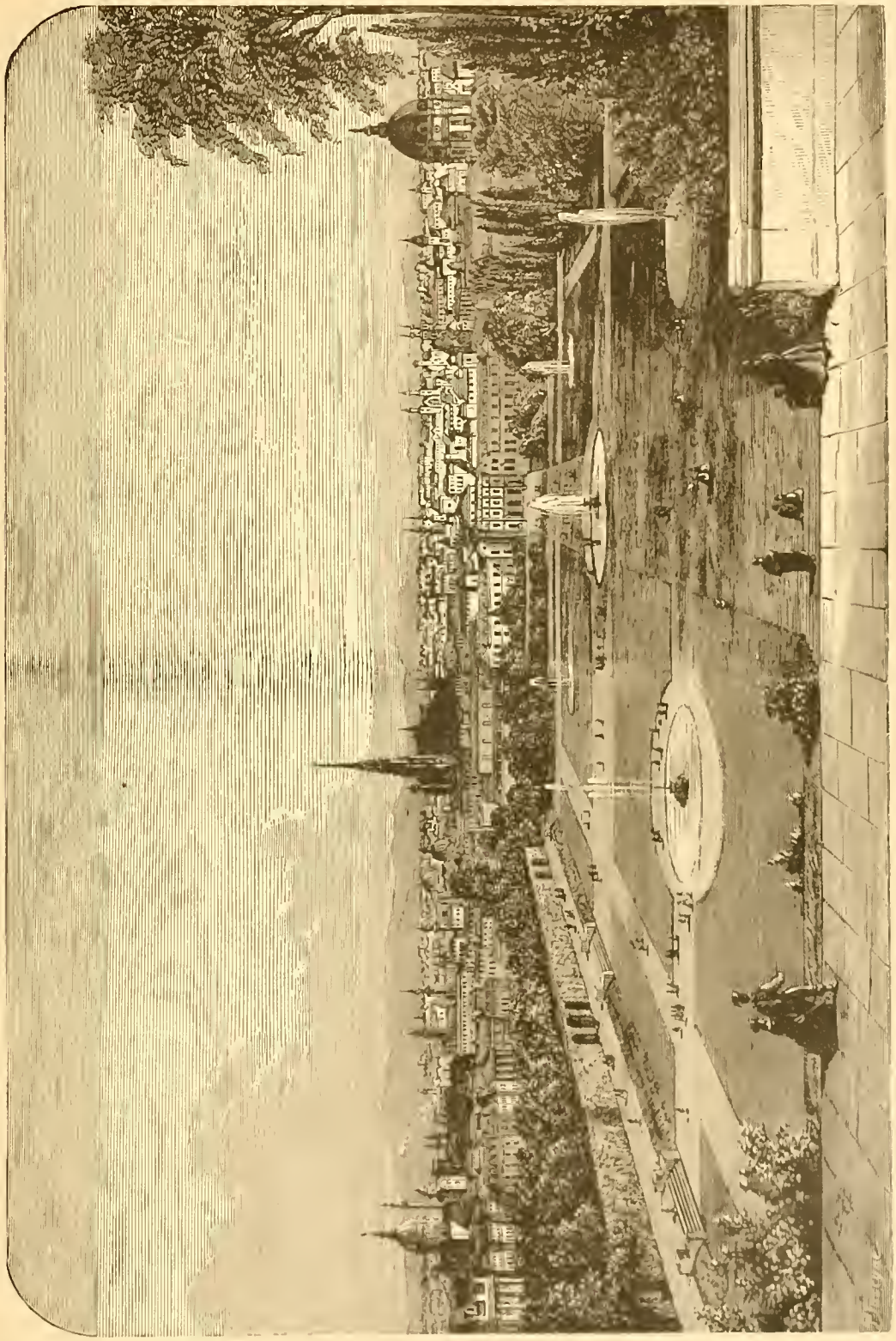
Hungarian history is divided into three divisions. The first period, from 887 to 1301, was tempestuous and bloody. The dynasty of the Arpads ruled, and the country was in a chronic state of war. From the latter date to 1526 the monarchy was elective, the kings being chosen by the nobles. Feudalism was supreme. Of the Arpads, Stephen I., crowned "His Apostolic Majesty" in 1000, was the most illustrious. The elective system proved repressive to the public interest. The nobility discouraged the development of any third estate, and the common people were serfs. But Stephen, who is the pride of Hungary, was really the great misfortune of the country, especially in this, that he made the Latin language the official language of the country, and its only vehicle of civilization, and this ostracism of the vernacular tongue continued until the current century.

In 1526 the rule of the Hapsburgs began, and remains to this day. The only serious attempt to shake off that yoke was under the leadership of that highly sensational revolutionist, Louis Kossuth, whose carreer of meteoric splendor about the middle of this century drew to him the gaze of the world. A journalist by profession, a brilliant orator and sincere patriot, he succeeded in stirring up a powerful revolt against Austria, and after being compelled to seek safety in flight he found his way to this country, where his speeches in the years 1851–52 excited the utmost enthusiasm. But the meteor disappeared without any permanent effect upon either the heavens above or the earth beneath. Hungary is a truly loyal portion of the empire of the Hapsburgs. On two occasions it may be said that Hungary rescued the Hapsburgs from ruin.

KOSSUTH.

MARIA THERESA.

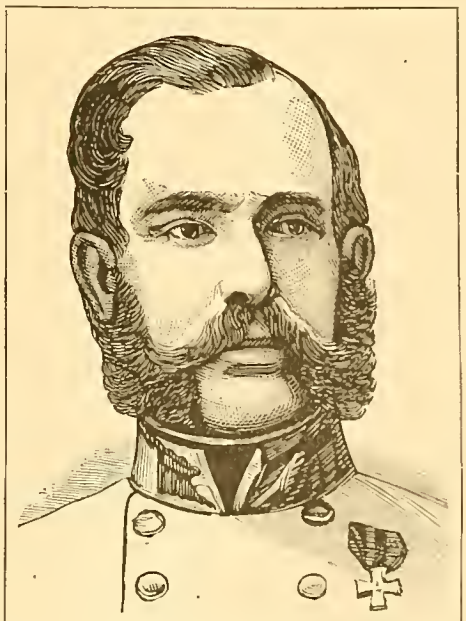
When Maria Theresa tottered upon her throne it was the heroism and chivalric



VIENNA.

devotion of the Magyars which saved her from destruction, and a little later, when Napoleon was uncertain whether to destroy the house or marry one of the daughters, it was Hungarian influence which decided him. But for all that, the Hapsburgs never respected Hungarian rights and prejudices until after the revolution of 1848 had nearly succeeded in securing a separation of Hungary from Austria.

The policy of the emperors was to try to remodel the institutions of the country, and make them conform to the German plan. So far from succeeding in the eradication of what might be called indigenous ideas, this policy resulted in strengthening, vivifying and intensifying those national peculiarities. Francis Joseph, who came to the throne in 1848, was early given a very impressive practical lesson on this subject, the result of which is seen in the fact that Hungary is absolutely equal in the scale of national institutions to Austria.



FRANCIS JOSEPH I.

At the risk of being a little tedious, it is proposed to give the political institutions of this dual kingdom, quoted, with some condensation, from that excellent English authority, Mr. Frederick Martin.

Francis I., who reigned from 1792 to 1835, was the first "Kaiser" of Austria, and when his son Ferdinand IV. abdicated in 1848 in favor of Francis Joseph, the latter became emperor-king.

The present constitution dates, however, from 1867. Each of the two countries, Austria and Hungary, has its own parliament, ministry and government, the connecting links being a common sovereign, army, navy and diplomacy, together with a controlling body, known as the Delegations. The latter form a parliament of 120 members, equally divided between the two countries, the delegates being chosen by the local legislatures, the latter bodies having two branches, substantially the same as the senate and house of our legislatures. The local legislature or diet is called Reichstag, in Hungary, Reichsrath in Austria. The delegations of each country sit in a body by themselves, possessing co-ordinate authority and power, but if they cannot agree on measures when thus acting separately they meet as one body, and the final vote is binding upon the entire empire. This imperial diet is confined in its jurisdiction to foreign affairs and war. There are three ministers for the whole empire, namely the ministry of war, of foreign affairs and of finance. There is a ministry at Austria and another at Hungary. The former consists of the Interior; Public Education, Justice and Ecclesiastical Affairs; Finance; Agriculture; Commerce and National Defense. The Hungarian departments, or executives, are, Presidency of the Council; Finance; National Defense; Ministry Near the King's Person; Interior; Education and Public Worship; Justice; Communications and Public Works; Agriculture, Industry and Commerce; and the Ministry of Croatia and Slavonia. The imperial cabinet is responsible to the Delegations, the local cabinets to their respective diets, the Reichstag and Reichsrath, as the case may be.

Religious toleration is enjoyed throughout the empire, but the Roman Catholic church has a great preponderance. There are no less than three hundred abbeys and five hundred convents in the empire. The perfect equality of all religious creeds and civil marriage were established in 1868. Until within the last twenty years the masses of the people were in dense ignorance. Public schools are now maintained, and in the strictly German part of the empire primary education is almost universal. There are eight universities in the empire. They are situated at Vienna, the capital of Austria, Pesth, the capital of Hungary, Prague, Graz, Innsbruck, Cracow, Czernowitz and Lemberg. The first and second are the most extensive, the former having about 250 teachers and 3000 pupils, the latter over 120 teachers and 2000 pupils.

According to an article of the treaty of Berlin,

(1878) Bosnia and Herzegovina were to have their public affairs administered by Austria-Hungary. Those provinces, formerly belonging to Turkey, added a territory of 24,247 square miles and a population of 1,212,172 to the empire. These figures are based on a census of 1879. About one-third of the population of this new territory are Mohammedans, a still larger proportion Greeks, and a sixth are called Romanites. The Christians, both Greeks and Romanites, were well pleased with it.

The little principality of Lichtenstein, inclosed in the Austrian province of Tyrol and Vorarlberg, is practically a part of the empire. It contains only 68 square miles and a population of less than ten thousand. The people pay no taxes and perform no compulsory military duty. It is a fertile although mountainous little country. The prince resides at Vienna, rather than at his capital, Vaderz.

It only remains to speak of the cities of this empire. There are only nine having a population of over 50,000. Vienna has a population of over a million and is one of the grandest cities on the globe. The other Austrian cities are Prague, 189,949; Trieste, 109,324; Lemberg, 87,109; Gratz, 81,119 and Brunn, 73,771. The Hungarian cities are, the capital, Pesth, or, as it is sometimes called, Buda-Pesth, which has a population of 270,464, Szegedin, 70,179; Maria-Theresiopel, 56,323. Taken as a whole, the empire is eminently rural, with a strong tendency, however, toward concentration of population in cities.

"Intellectual Germany," as the term is used in this book, includes all the Germans, Austrian no less than Prussian; but in the domain of letters Hungary has a distinct record.

The Magyars, who settled in Hungary as early as the middle of the ninth century of the Christian era, had a language so well defined and matured that it has undergone but few changes in a thousand years, It was not until the eighteenth century, however, that it so much as began to be a vehicle of literature. Latin was the language employed by writers. The Hungarian newspaper press deserves especial mention for its ability and services in developing a vernacular literature. Kossuth was by no means alone among the editors of that country who rose to eminence, although he alone acquired world-wide fame. This language can boast some highly creditable, if somewhat commonplace, prose books, but as a recent writer upon the intellectual development of Europe justly observes, "Its true inauguration as a literary language, as the bearer of a national civilization, as the expression of a national genius, the Hungarian language received by the publication in 1817 of *Himfy's Love*, by Sandor Kinfalndy." A competent critic pronounces that volume of "epics with strong lyrical tone," resplendent with the luster of true genius. Others have followed him until Hungary has a very respectable national literature.

BELGIUM AND THE NETHERLANDS.

SEMI-GERMAN.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE TWO COUNTRIES COMPARED—BELGIUM AS A SEPARATE KINGDOM—RELIGION AND EDUCATION—THE KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS—JAVA—DUTCH GOVERNMENT AND SCHOOLS—TOPOGRAPHY AND RESOURCES—THE DUTCH IN HISTORY—IMPERIAL AND MEDIEVAL—THE NATION AND ITS GREAT WAR—THE THROES OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC—THE PERIOD OF PROSPERITY—THE FALL OF THE REPUBLIC—DUTCH ART; VAN EYCK TO ARY SCHEFFER—WATERLOO.

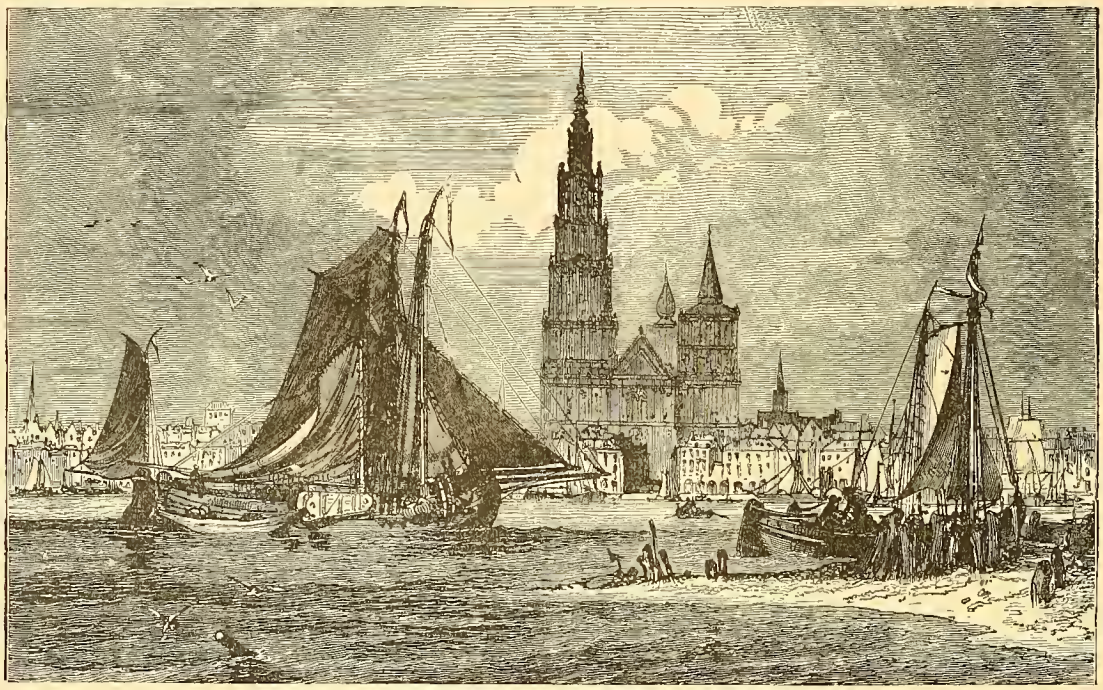
BELGIUM and the Netherlands are two distinct nations in their present political existence; but in the blending of the historical and the actual they cannot be dissociated. The provinces of Belgium are Antwerp, Brabant, Flanders (East and West), Hainault, Liege, Limbourg, Luxembourg and Namur, several of these names being suggestive of the Dutch Republic. The names Brabant and Limbourg are also found in the list of the Netherland provinces, besides Holland (North and South), Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Guelderland, Overyssel, Drenthe and Grönningen. The Dutch of history constitute, for the most part, the past of both the kingdoms under consideration.

Neither of these kingdoms may be called a normal development. On the contrary, the great powers of Europe, hostile to republicanism, drew arbitrary lines of national distinction and fixed the boundaries of each nation to suit themselves. Before reverting to the historical part of the subject of this chapter it may be well to set forth the present condition of the two kingdoms now under consideration.

Belgium dates from 1830. It was then that it was cut off from the Netherlands. The immediate occasion of the secession was a popular uprising in Brussels. The formal recognition of Belgium by all the governments of Europe did not occur until 1839. The first king was Leopold I. of Saxe-Coburg. The present king, Leopold II., was born in 1835, and came to the throne when his father died, 1865. The kingdom has an area of 11,373 square miles and a population of about six millions. It is the most densely inhabited country in Europe. Small as is the territory, the people are decidedly mixed. According to an official report of 1878 there are 2,256,860 Belgians who speak French, 2,659,890 who speak Flemish, 38,070 who speak German, and the rest speak two if not three of the languages named. There are over one million proprietors of the soil. The government is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy. The greater part of the authority of state is vested in the parliament with its two branches. The executive jurisdiction belongs to the ministers, each being responsible within the scope of his respective department. The members of both houses of the legislative part of the govern-

ment are chosen by the people, a property qualification being attached to the right of suffrage. The members of the lower house are elected for four years, of the upper house for eight. The number of the latter is one-half that of the former. Evidently the Belgian government is about as nearly republican as it well could be and maintain the form and semblance of royalty.

Nearly all the people are Romanists in religion. There are not more than 13,000 Protestants, all told, and less than 2,000 Jews. Full religious liberty is guaranteed by the Constitution, and the clergy of all denominations are paid in part from the national treasury. There are four universities in the kingdom, located at Brussels, Louvain, Ghent and Leige. These institutions are in the hands of the priests and Jesuits. Elementary education is sadly neglected, about one-fifth of the adult population being unable to read or write.



VIEW OF ANTWERP, CHIEF COMMERCIAL CITY OF BELGIUM.

Turning now to the Netherlands we find a people living under a constitution which dates from that great year of revolutions, 1848. The area is 20,527 square miles, the population about four millions. The city population is relatively large. In Holland proper it exceeds the rural population. Amsterdam, Rotterdam and The Hague are large cities. This kingdom is second only to England in colonial enterprise. These outside possessions are divided into three groups, namely, the possessions in Asia, or the East Indies; second, six small West India islands; third, Surinam in South America. The South African possessions have slipped away from the mother country. The total population of these colonies is about twenty-three millions, and eighteen millions belong in Java alone, which is many times more important than all the rest of the colonies of the Netherlands. It has an area of 51,336 square miles. Most of the people are agricultural laborers, nearly all the land being held either by the government or non-resident Dutch capitalists. The revenue derived is very considerable, mainly from the sale of coffee, with some sugar and spices. Java is an island. The Dutch took permanent possession of it in 1677. The Portuguese had visited it as early as 1511, and a Dutch settlement was effected in 1595. In the fifteenth century the people embraced Mohammedanism. Prior to that they were Buddhists. The Javans are very industrious and

quite skillful. The island is governed as if it were an immense estate managed for the exclusive benefit of distant owners and their resident agents.

Returning now to the home government, we find it substantially the same in character as Belgium. The entire legislative authority is vested in a body called the States General, with two branches. In theory the king has the veto power, but his exercise of it is very infrequent. The present king is William III. The present kingdom was reconstructed by and dates from the Congress of Vienna, 1815, when the sovereignty was vested in the ancient and illustrious house of Orange. The first king of the present realm was William I. He was succeeded in 1840 by William II., and he in turn by the king now on the throne. This house traces its origin to Count Waldam who lived in Germany in the eleventh century. The prevailing religion is that of the Reformed Church, with about an equal number of Catholics. The government is impartial in matters of faith and worship, but the moral influence of the government is wholly Protestant. Education is slowly making its way among the common people. It is estimated that among the strictly rural population of the Netherlands, one-fourth of the male adults and one-third of the women can neither read nor write. The rising generation will make a much better showing in this regard. According to latest accounts there are 2,600 public schools with pupils to the number of 400,000. Besides these public schools there are a great many private schools. The universities of the kingdom are four,—those at Leyden, Gröningen, Amsterdam and Utrecht.

The Netherlands, as the name suggests, is a low and flat country, literally wrested from the sea by the skill and industry of man. It is a delta with the Rhine, the Meuse and the Scheldt as its watery

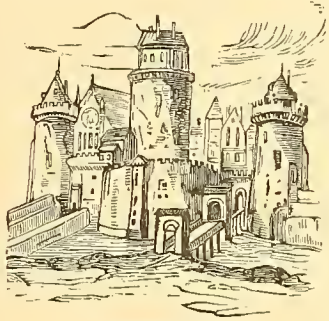
VIEW OF THE HAGUE.

enclosures. Intersected by rivers and canals, much of the land is actually below the water level. Dikes and dunes protect the country from inundation. The result is a vast wealth of agricultural resources so rich indeed as to make the farmers of the Lowland preeminently prosperous.

Turning now from the actual to the historical, we will follow the somewhat involved and devious course of that Semi-German people most widely designated as the Dutch.

In the days of the Roman Empire the Belgæ, Batavians and Tuscans were a part of the great German and Gallic region conquered by Julius Cæsar. In the Carlovingian empire they lacked national individuality. In the sunshine and storm

of feudalism the Low Country grew into distinctiveness. There were several dukedoms: Brabant, Limbourg and Luxembourg; countships: Artois, Flanders and Holland; bishoprics: Mechlin and Utrecht. Being upon the outskirts of the continent, and inhabiting a country then far from its present state of cultivation, even as compared to other parts of Europe, they were allowed to regulate their own affairs pretty nearly in their own way. The rod of imperialism was lightly felt. The fierce conflict with the sea which the people were obliged to wage cultivated boldness and energy of character. Located as they were upon the seaboard, having rivers which were arms of the sea, their position was peculiarly favorable to commercial development. The feudal lords had their castles and armed retainers, but side by side with them grew up and flourished marts of trade, fortified against invasion, prepared for war without being devoted to it. The commercial spirit of the old Phœnicians prevailed, coupled with a heroism which would have done honor to Rome in her best days. The Medieval Dutch were the pioneers of modern commercial thrift.



A Feudal Castle.

Late in the fourteenth century the Duke of Burgundy became also Count of Flanders, the Union having been effected by marriage. In 1477 the house of Hapsburg absorbed the Netherlands, and a great stimulus was given to Dutch commerce. For a time Austria, the Netherlands and Spain, with some minor possessions, owed allegiance to the same crown. They never formed one nation. When the empire of Charles V. was divided the Netherlands and Spain went together, and this unnatural union produced the most important results. At that time both peoples were enterprising, and it was a very great good fortune, so far as that went, to the Dutch that they were linked politically with the discoverers of America. The Spaniard sought gold and silver in the new world; the Dutch were true to their strictly commercial instincts. But in any other regard the union was incongruous.

The Reformation, which found its chief apostle in Martin Luther, found its readiest acceptance in the Low lands. As Philip of Spain was the very prince of bigots, he saw in his Protestant subjects vipers to be exterminated. The result was a war which began in 1566 and lasted until 1648. A more causeless, cruel, devastating and heroic war never stained the annals of history. For eighty-two years, nearly three generations, the struggle continued. At first the several provinces resisted oppression and held fast to their rights in an independent way, but in 1579 a union was formed at Utrecht between the seven Northern provinces, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Gröningen, Overyssel and Guelderland. Spain so far recognized this union as to enter into an armistice of twelve years, concluded in 1609. That armistice was simply recuperative for the final struggle. On the Spanish side were those monsters of cruelty and treachery, Alva, Parma, Don John and Alexander Farnese, while upon the side of the Dutch were William of Nassau, Maurice of Nassau, John Barneveldt, and others of heroic mold. The commercial cities proved capable of the most patient endurance of hardships. It was a noble matching of patriotism against fanaticism. Finally, in 1648, the peace of Westphalia recognized the independence of the states forming the Dutch Republic.

The present Netherlands, with some modifications, embraces that republic, while the present Belgium includes the Dutch provinces which Spain retained, and out of which Protestantism was stamped by the persistence of Spanish Catholicism.

For a century the Dutch Republic was mistress of the sea and flourished beyond all precedent. Spain and Portugal were quite unable to maintain their maritime supremacy. The business-like air which pervaded the Republic enabled the bold seamen and merchant princes of the Netherlands to sweep all before them, and it was with good reason that Admiral von Tromp paraded a broom at his masthead as he coasted along the English channel. In 1667 DeRuyter sailed up the Thames and blockaded the port of London. The Swedes and the Danes were awed into acquiescence. But England was not to be kept down. In the eighteenth century it gradually gained upon its republican rival. The wresting of New York from the Dutch was one of many instances in point. When the American

colonies declared war for independence the Dutch thought to improve the opportunity for recovering their lost prestige. But instead of doing that, they lost still more ground, receiving a blow from which there was never any recovery. In the meanwhile party spirit ran high in the Republic. One faction would gladly have made the chief magistracy hereditary in the Orange-Nassau family, while the other favored a pure republic.

In the winter of 1794-95, the French army having conquered the Spanish possessions in the North (Belgium), marched into the Republic and was hailed by one party as deliverers. That foreign invasion may be said to have dealt a fatal blow to the Dutch Republic. The Batavian Republic was declared in May, 1795, which lingered in obscurity until, in 1806, Napoleon hurled it aside and set up the Kingdom of Holland for Louis Bonaparte. Four years later he incorporated it with France. The Congress of Vienna re-established the Kingdom of Holland, with the Orange-Nassau family on the throne, Belgium being a part of it, as seen already, until 1830.

SATYR AND NYMPHS—AFTER RUBENS.

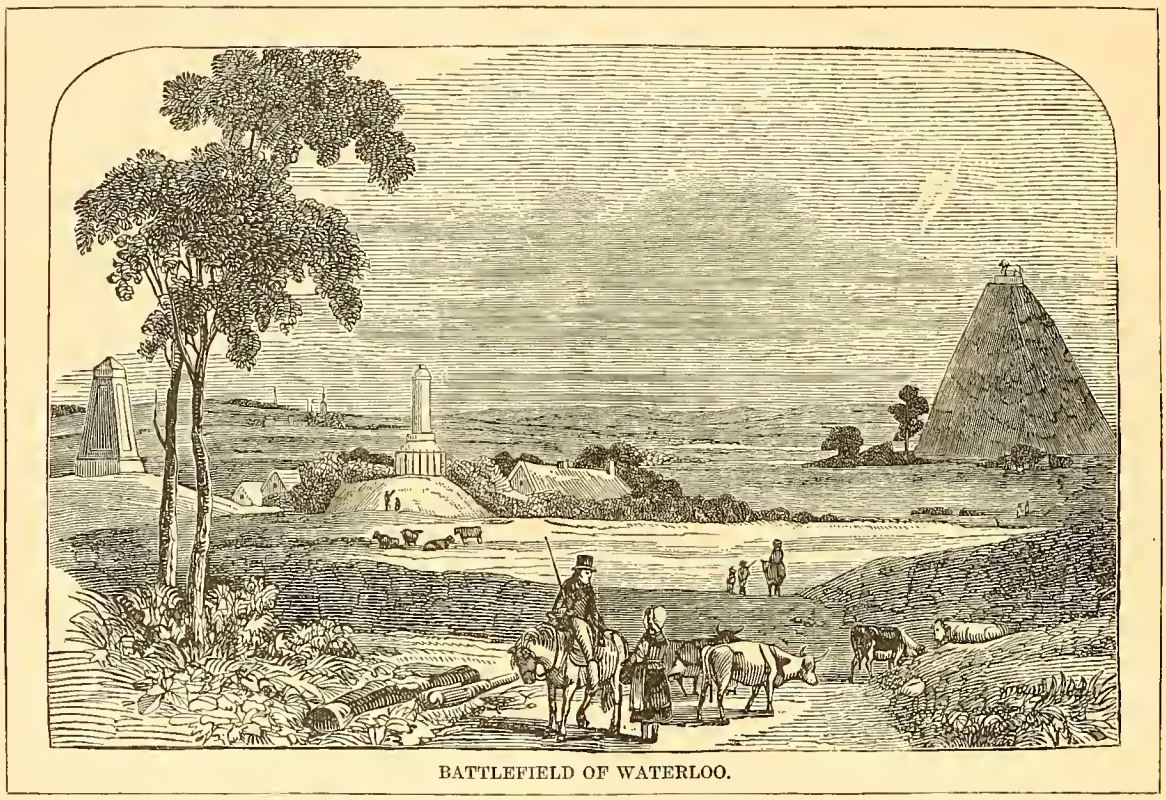
Since that time the Dutch have been content to quietly follow business pursuits. To-day they are notable for the vastness of their holdings of government and corporate bonds. Their surplus capital is enormous. Not given to ostentation, they seem to take a special delight in mere accumulation.

In no other respect can the Dutch lay such high claim to preeminence as in art. The painters of the Flemish and Dutch schools are second only to the Italians in the number of their great names and the brilliance of their fame. The earliest of these was Hubert Van Eyck, who flourished in the last half of the fourteenth century at Ghent and Bruges. He excelled in the depth, power, transparency and harmony in his coloring. His brother Jan contributed much to the development of art in the Netherlands. The older brother invented, or perfeeted, a varnish which was of great importance in the preservation of paintings. The next preeminently great name was Albrecht Dürer of Nuremberg, born in 1471. He is called the father of the German school of painting. It has been said that his art was great because it was the natural outgrowth of his own genius, race and time. The acknowleged head of the Flemish school of art was Rubens, born at Siegen, Westphalia, in 1577. "As a painter," says Mrs. Shedd, "the qualities of Rubens consist in a truthful and intense feeling for nature and a warm and transparent coloring. He had wonderful fertility of conception, and still more wonderful facility of execution; his imagination embraced every object capable of representation, and he could render with equal success the most forcible and the most fleeting appearances of nature." A pupil of Rubens of hardly less fame was Anthony Van Dyck of Antwerp. He was a masterly painter of portraits. He was alike successful in delineating strong characters and the simplicity of childhood. The next name to challenge attention is Rembrandt, born in Leyden, 1608. Truthful and picturesque, he possessed very remarkable power in all the technicalities of his art. His lighting was peculiar. On his canvas light is concentrated, and not diffused. Paul Potter, born at Enkhuysen in 1625, was the first great animal painter, and it would hardly be too much to call him the foremost artist of nature. Landscapes from his brush show the utmost fidelity to the real and very delicate

ALBRECHT DÜRER.

gradations of perspective. The last to be mentioned, but by no means the least, of these artists of the Lowlands, was Ary Scheffer, of Dordrecht. Born as the last century was on the eve of departure, he belonged to the present century. He really belongs in that legion of honor, the great masters, for his genius resembled theirs in its religious character. His best paintings have Christ as their central figure. He also selected many subjects from the great poets Goethe, Schiller and Byron.

Having now concluded the survey of the German and Semi-German peoples, inclusive of the lofty standpoint of the intellect, we are about to cross the Rhine where the nimble and vivacious French present a strong contrast to the proverbially phlegmatic Dutch, and in passing we find in Belgium (which in the language and habits of the inhabitants is a connecting link between the two countries and peoples) the most memorable battlefield in all the world, the spot above all others in Belgium which a traveler would wish to visit. That illustrious spot, it is hardly necessary to say, is Waterloo. The village of this name is in the province of South Brabant on the road from Charlevoi to Brussels, at the outskirts of the forest of Seignies. The two armies occupied ridges, and the valley between was indeed the valley of death. Agriculture long since resumed its sway over that field, but traces and relics of the immortal combat are still to be found there, mementoes of what Victor Hugo says was not a battle, but "the change of front of the universe."



BATTLEFIELD OF WATERLOO.

OLD FRANCE.

CHAPTER XLIV.

OLD AND NEW FRANCE—ANCIENT GAUL—CLOVIS AND THE FRANKS—THE MEROVINGIAN LINE—CHARLES MARTEL AND THE SARACENS—THE CARLOVINGIAN AND CAPETIAN DYNASTIES—THE HOUSE OF VALOIS WITH ITS BRANCHES—FROM 843 TO 1142—ABELARD AND HELOISE—ST. LOUIS—GRAND MASTER KNIGHT TEMPLAR MOLAY—SERFS—BATTLE OF AGINCOURT AND JOAN OF ARC—THE RENAISSANCE AND RABELAIS—THE VAUDOIS AND JOHN CALVIN—THE MASSACRE OF ST BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY.

IT is hardly an exaggeration to say that the prophecy, "A nation shall be born in a day," was literally fulfilled in the case of France. When the mighty deeps of Paris were lashed into a fury which leveled the Bastile to the ground in one grand spasm of righteous indignation, old things passed away and New France was created. The French people of the present time are the product of the revolution of a century ago, and not, like the English people, the slow growth of many centuries.

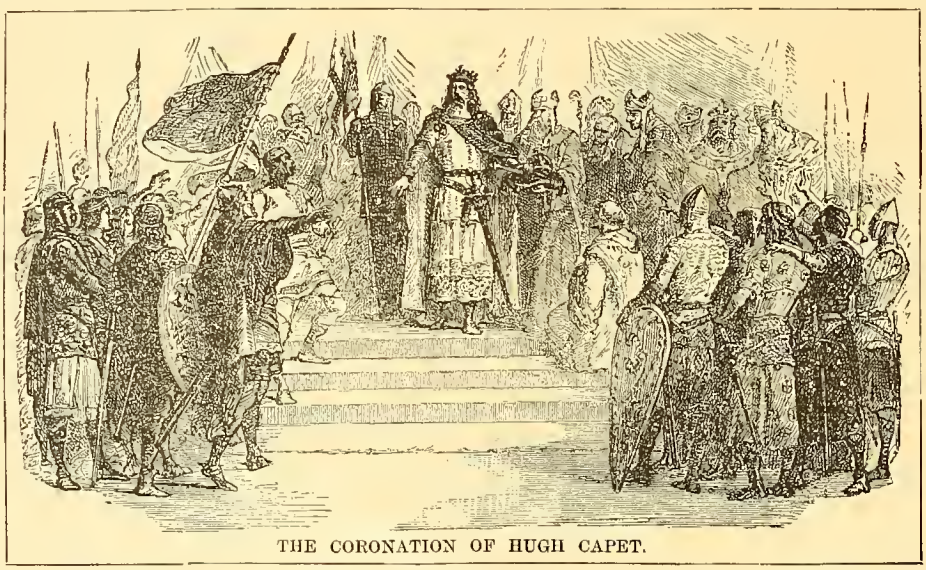
Rome not only conquered Gaul, but did much to civilize it. When the empire crumbled, the German and Gothic barbarians poured down from the north, coming both by land and water, and the country lapsed back into barbarism. The transition from Gaul to France was at first a reaction subversive of the progress made during the period from Cæsar to Clovis. That progress had two stages, religiously, but in actual civilization it was one gradual improvement. The substitution of Olympic deities for the wild fanaticism of the long-bearded Druids was a very beneficent step, followed later by a quite general acceptance of Christianity. By a wholesome process of growth the various institutions, ideas and methods of Roman civilization were adopted and thoroughly naturalized. There were prosperous cities, well-tilled farms and even colleges of some renown in Gaul.

But in A. D. 481, the savage Franks, no longer held in check by the eagles of Rome, crossed the Rhine and took possession of the land, and that without a struggle. The Gauls had been greatly benefited by the Roman conquest, but were not at all loath to exchange masters. Not only the old Gauls, but the Goths who had preceded the Franks in forming settlements in Gallia, took kindly to the change. Clovis, first of the Frank kings, accepted Christian baptism and seemed disposed to encourage the regular flow of the stream of civilization. But his acceptance of Christianity proved a great calamity. He was surrounded by orthodox priests and theologians, while in southern Gaul the Arian doctrine had been espoused. The royal convert declared it a shame that such fair possessions should belong to heretics, and soon a desolating war was in progress.

The destruction attributable to Clovis and his polemical advisers was trivial as compared with the

desolation wrought by the rivalries of his four sons. When he died, 511, a long period of barbarism begun. The dynasty which he founded, called the Merovingian line (in honor of the otherwise obscure grandfather of Clovis, Meroveg) continued from 496 to 741, sixteen generations. During all that time the dreary waste was unrelieved by a single ray of hope. By sad and bloody steps the land receded toward a savage condition. Gradually the bad became worse, but the royal family sank lower than the people,—so very low that it sank out of sight with Chilperic IV.

The immediate occasion of the disappearance of the Merovingian line and the accession of the Carlovingian, was the invasion of Western Europe by the Saracens. The latter having defeated Spain, crossed the Pyrenees, thinking to subjugate France and Germany, then substantially one country. The feeble king could do nothing to check the invasion, but Charles, Mayor of Paris (an office which had gradually come to exercise almost regal authority), came to the front as general of an army composed of Germans and Franks. He met the Saracens at Orleans and crushed them. He is known as Charles Martel (the Hammer) and the savior of Western Europe from Islam. He might have taken the crown at once, but preferred a ducal title.



THE CORONATION OF HUGH CAPET.

His son Pepin enjoyed the regal fruits of that splendid victory. He was not a memorable sovereign. His claim to distinction is the fact that he was the son of Charles Martel and the father of Charlemagne. The latter reigned over the Franks, but was a German in reality. The Carlovingian line has been set forth in connection with German history. In the disintegration of the Carlovingian empire, which followed immediately the death of Charlemagne, Gaul (now become France) fell to the lot of a branch of that family which produced a series of rulers signally unworthy of sovereignty. Those imbecile and vicious kings followed each other in monotonous infamy until 987, when Hugh Capet came to the French throne. The people were no longer Franks, a name suggestive of their Teutonic origin, but Frenchmen. The Capetian line held the scepter until 1328, through fourteen generations. We find little of note during this period. The elevation of Hugh Capet was the result of national necessity and papal intervention.

There had come to be a potent settlement of Normans upon the west of France, Normandy and Brittany. Under the Capetians these Normans were fused largely with the Franks from over the Rhine, and the French nationality consists of Gauls, Romans, Teutons and Normans amalgamated. The distinctive France is, therefore, a braid with four strands inseparably interwoven.

By the time the dynasty founded by Hugh Capet gave place to the Valois branch of the royal family, the nation had still another quadruple character; it consisted of the church, the king, the nobility and the people, developed in the order observed. The struggles and rivalries of these factors or powers during the Middle Ages possess no marked peculiarity. Whether the king was of the house of Valois, Valois-Orleans or Valois-Angoleme, the dreary waste of centuries presents very few sterling features. But before proceeding with the Bourbons it

may be well to pause in our dynastic sketch to note the really noteworthy events and historical landmarks of France up to the accession of the last of the French royal families.

The treaty of Verdun, 843, was the recognized date for the distinct creation of Italy, France and Germany. The coronation of Hugh Capet has been called "the triumph of German manners and feudal connections." Christian art and the burning of heretics in France began about the eleventh century. The conquest of England by William, Duke of Normandy, a disgraceful victory of French arms, dates from this century, but as it never seriously modified French civilization, while it did the civilization of England, it belongs to the history of the latter country. Upon both countries it and other causes entailed a long series of wars, during which the British kings laid claim to France, in whole or in part, occasionally gaining a foothold in the land, notably at Calais. Practically, it resulted in the production of that remarkable patroit and martyr, Joan of Arc, and a few interesting military episodes. That is about all, from the French point of view. The first Crusade was formally inaugurated at Clermont, France, and Peter the Hermit, who was its great apostle, was a Frenchman. So was the pope of the period, Urban II., and the famous Christian knight, Godfrey of Bouillon. That Crusade dates from 1095. In the subsequent Crusades France bore a prominent part. It was specially conspicuous in the establishment and maintenance of national amity and royal heredity.

PETER THE HERMIT.

During the darkest part of the Dark Ages, France produced a great intellectual luminary, and, prophetic of its future national character, intellectual preeminence was linked with love and romance. Thus Abelard and his fair Heloise are the first names in French annals to gain immortality, apart from the accident of rank. The former was a great scholar and debater. Having won distinction by his learning and skill in dialectical subtleties, such as the medieval scholars were fond of, he was hired to teach Heloise Greek. They fell in love and were imprudent. To save him from disgrace (for he was a priest), she refused to be married, preferring to bear alone the burden of their mutual calamity. She suffered everything, but never wavered in her loyalty to him. He developed into a cold-blooded, selfish ecclesiastic, as mean as she was amicable. Their story is peculiarly pathetic, and to this day the French love to bedeck with flowers and bedew with tears the one grave of this couple. It is a perpetual shrine of sentimentalism. But in addition to all that, Abelard did something to relieve the intellectual sterility and stupidity of his time and church.

One sovereign in the long list so rapidly passed over deserves special mention. Louis IX., known often as St. Louis. From 1226 to 1270 he held the reins of government, a truly great and good man. He loved the people, and was unremitting in his zeal to serve them. He convoked a parliament (or states-general); established institutions of justice; issued humane edicts; sought to maintain peace; endowed hospitals and asylums; encouraged art; practiced virtue in private life, and charity to the poor. Somewhat given to superstition, he was yet free from the character usually stamped upon the human mind by credulity.

Early in the fourteenth century occurred the trial and condemnation of Jacques Molay, Grand Master of the Knights Templar. He was a victim of the cupidity of Philip the Handsome, and the servility to that monarch of Pope Clement V. The Order of the Temple had grown out of the Crusades, and was possessed of great wealth. Molay was burnt at the stake, and the order compelled to exist only in secret. Its present prosperous condition is of very modern date.

The serfs of the royal domain were liberated July 3, 1315, by Louis X. He was a quarrelsome king,

and needed soldiers to fight in Flanders. That, and not philanthropy, prompted emancipation. The development of the power of the people became by this time a prominent feature. The burghers or commons, acquired very considerable authority. Speaking of France at this period, Guizot remarks: "There have been communes in the whole of Europe, in Italy, Spain, Germany and England as well as in France. Not only have there been communes everywhere, but the communes of France are not those which, as communes, under that name and in the middle ages, have played the chiefest part and taken the highest place in history. The Italian communes were the parents of glorious republics. The German communes became free and sovereign towns, which had their own special history, and exercised a great deal of influence upon the general history of Germany. The communes of England made alliance with a portion of the English feudal aristocracy, formed with it the preponderating house in the British government, and thus played, full early, a mighty part in the history of their country. Far were the French communes, under that name and in their day of special activity, from rising to such political importance and to such historical rank. And yet it is in France that the people of the communes, the burgherdom, reached the most complete and most powerful development, and ended by acquiring the most decided preponderance in the general social structure. There have been communes, we say, throughout Europe; but there has not really been a victorious third estate anywhere save in France." White declares that in the course of this sovereign's life the middle ages passed away and modern life began.

From the accession of the first Valois King, Philip VI. to Charles VII. (1326 to 1453) France and England were almost constantly at war. The darkest day was October 25, 1415, when the battle of Agincourt was fought, resulting in a most terrible slaughter of the flower of French chivalry. The English seemed to be absolute masters of the situation. Year after year the unequal contest was waged, invading Britons desolating the land with impunity, and laying successful siege to the cities. The first great check to English aggression came from the weird leadership of Joan of Arc. This strange girl was a peasant born. That was an age of wild hallucination. At the age of sixteen, 1428, she had a dream in consequence of which she fancied herself ordained by Providence to deliver her country from the English soldiery, then ravaging the land. At first her "mission" was too incredible to be seriously entertained. The idea of a rustic maid raising the siege of Orleans (which she promised to do if given command of troops) was preposterous. But the situation was critical in the extreme, and her enthusiasm inspired confidence. She was given an opportunity to try the experiment. It was a glorious success. Her faith bred heroism in those about her, and by a spasm of patriotism the English were forced to abanden Orleans not only, but to surrender many other advantages. Finally she was captured and subjected to treatment quite in keeping with medieval ideas of justice. The French made no effort to secure her exchange. They allowed her to be treated by the English as they saw fit. She was tried for heresy and witchcraft. For three weeks she was badgered by bishops and lawyers. Her sentence was imprisonment for life. That was too lenient, and she was afterwards accused of wearing man's clothes, forbidden in the book of Leviticus, and on that charge burnt in the market-place at Rouen (1431). And still the French court and people were indifferent. Later, her name was enshrined and held in highest honor.

The dawn of modern day in Germany is called the Reformation, or the revival of religion; in France, the Renaissance, or the revival of learning. The former clustered about the name of Luther; the latter was less personal. The great reformer was able to rally to his support a powerful political following. The cause of learning had the sympathy of Louis XI. That monarch ruled from 1461 to 1483. He encouraged printing and scientific pursuits. A monster of cruelty, the victim of superstition and fear, he yet had his good points as a sovereign. Duclos says of him, "Louis XI. was far from being without reproach; few princes have deserved so much; but it may be said that he was equally celebrated for his virtues and his vices, and that, every thing being put in the balances, he was a king. The term renaissance (pronounced *ruhnasongs*) is French for regeneration or second birth. A term which means in English a purely spiritual and religious experience of the individual soul, designates, in the French, an awakening of intellectual

activity, and this difference fairly illustrates the representative characteristics of the two peoples.

The first name in this movement is Francois Rabellais. He was born in 1495, and died at Paris in 1553. He was a priest by profession, a humorist by nature. His writings are grotesque, coarse and often tedious, yet learned, thoughtful and generally sprightly. They consist of the account of the life and experiences of "Gargantua" and "Pantagruel." Through Rabellais' preposterous conceits runs a vein of sharp criticism upon the follies of his age, the corruptions of the clergy, the inanities of the schoolmen, the crime of despotism, and the evils of superstition. His was a voice of laughter, but yet none the less "the voice of one crying in the wilderness, Prepare ye the way of the lord." The Renaissance was the forerunner of both the Reformation and the Revolution, of Calvin and Voltaire, of St. Bartholomew and the Fourteenth of July.

MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

The name of John Calvin is associated with the little Swiss stronghold of Geneva and the Presbyterian church in Scotland and later in America; but he was none the less a Frenchman. Born at Noyon in 1509 he came to the notice of the public through a treatise on Clemency, called out by the first persecution of the French Protestants. The latter were and still are called Huguenots. He received his Protestantism from a Lutheran teacher. But long before Luther, or even John Huss, there was a very considerable Protestant church in France. It consisted of the inhabitants of the small and somewhat isolated districts on the eastern slope of the Cottian Alps, called Vaudois. They worshiped God, indifferent to the pope. So long as the evangelical faith and simplicity were confined to that people all went smoothly; but when Europe was aroused by the boom of the Lutheran cannon they were condemned as hereties. Three thousand were burnt or put to the sword and the rest imprisoned or otherwise destroyed. The Vaudois were literally wiped out. That was in 1540. But in the Huguenots lived the faith and heroism of the Waldenses, as the Vaudois were sometimes called.

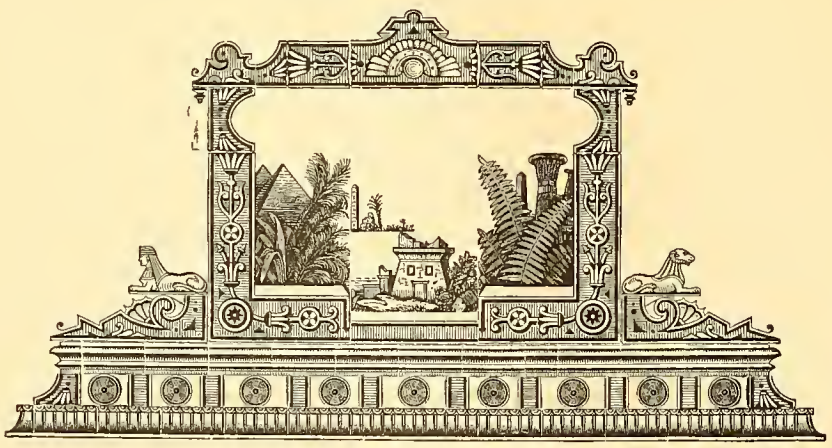
Calvin took the precaution of getting out of the country before he incurred the vengeance of the ecclesiastical authorities. He lived in Geneva, mainly, where he wrote on theology, preached, and exercised the functions of a stern persecutor until his death (1564). He was determined that Geneva should be not only Protestant, but orthodox. His burning of Servetus for Unitarianism was, on a small scale, entirely in keeping with the massacre of St. Bartholomew. The spirit of toleration and clemency was foreign to the thought and practice of the sixteenth century, especially to the French of that day. At no time was the government of France other than Catholic.

The massacre of the Huguenots begun on St. Bartholomew's Day, August 24, 1572, was the most horrible slaughter of innocent men in cold blood on record, and it was perpetrated "for conscience' sake," a woman being the prime mover in the awful infamy. That woman was Catherine de Medici, the Italian mother of the weak king, Charles IX., the last but

one of the house of Valois. He reigned from 1560 to 1574, his mother being the chief power behind the throne. The ducal house of Guise held the leadership of the Catholic party. Thousands of Protestant churches had sprung up, and the new religion seemed to prosper, despite repeated and cruel persecution. But the Catholic faction determined to make an utter end of "the new mischief," and neither Catherine, the king nor Guise scrupled to go to the utmost length of repression. The first victim was the illustrious Admiral Coligny, who was assassinated in his bed-chamber that awful night. His blood was the signal for a general slaughter. The Catholic populace, high and low, was seized with a murderous frenzy, and the Protestants, taken all unaware, fell by thousands, and that not only in Paris, but throughout the kingdom. The number of victims could never be ascertained. The estimates for Paris vary from 1,000 to 4,000; for France, from 30,000 to 100,000. It was so terrible as to be fatal to the cause of Protestantism.

It was during the reign of Henry II. that Protestantism made the most rapid progress in France. The first Protestant church in Paris was organized in 1555, and in the country at large there were, three years later, not less than 2,000 Protestant places of worship, with congregations estimated at 400,000, all told. Speaking of this horrible butchery, Anderson says: "In all parts the massacre went on. The houses of the Huguenots had been marked with white, and the names of the inmates taken, that none might escape. Neither age nor sex was spared by the enraged soldiers. The King himself took a position at one of the windows of the Louvre, and fired upon the flying Huguenots. For three days Paris was thus given over to the rage of Guise and his party."

When, a few years later, Henry of Navarre, who had been a gallant defender of Protestantism on many a battlefield, came to the throne in 1589, as the first of the Bourbons, he thought it necessary, for political reasons, to abjure his Protestant faith and avow himself a papist. He tried to be somewhat lenient to Protestantism, but a blow had been struck which was fatal to the cause. When next the spirit of reform found embodiment it was not in Evangelical Christianity, but in Voltairean hostility to all religion. The importance of that awful night could not be overestimated, but for our purpose it is enough to add that the first fruits of it ripened a century later, and that the intervening period was preparatory to the overthrow of monarchy and the birth of Latter-day France.



TRIUMPH AND DECAY OF FRENCH MONARCHY.

CHAPTER XLV.

HENRY OF NAVARRE—RECANTATION AND TOLERATION—LOUIS XIII.—RICHELIEU—LOUIS XIV.—THE GRAND MONARCHY AND INTELLECTUAL PROGRESS—PERSECUTION AND OPPRESSION—THE LITERATI OF THAT PERIOD—LOUIS XV. AND JOHN LAW—FINANCE AND COLONIZATION—FRANCE AND THE AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE—THE ENCYCLOPEDIA AND THE GREAT REVOLUTIONARY WRITERS.

DURING the reigns of her two sons, Charles IX. and Henry III., Catherine de Medici was virtually the sovereign of France, covering the period from the death of her husband, Henry II., in 1559, to the accession of Henry of Navarre, known in royal line as Henry IV., the first of the Bourbons. The Protestants might well have expected from him revenge for St. Bartholomew. But during the nearly seventeen years which had intervened attention had been directed to other things. The horrible queen mother had slain the Protestants by the tens of thousands during the reign of Charles, and then, when her son Henry III. came to the throne, she made terrible havoc with the Catholic nobles of France. She seemed to be especially determined to destroy the "second estate" of the realm, so as to build up a veritable autocracy. The son naturally sympathized with this policy. He was not, however, in accord with her ecclesiastical policy, and formed an alliance with the King of Navarre, who was to be his successor on the throne of France. So desperate and unscrupulous were his opponents, the church party, that they procured his assassination. That brought to the throne Henry IV., a Protestant. But from considerations of policy he identified himself with the Catholic church, while granting toleration to the Protestants. The conflict between his real convictions and his sense of expediency had the result to make him charitable toward all shades of Christian faith.

HENRY IV.

Henry IV. was cousin of his predecessor, and came to the throne by due course of heredity. His predecessor's war upon the Guises and other Catholic nobles had prepared the way for him to be popular with their foes, and his chivalric record gave him a strong hold upon the whole nation. He had to fight, however, for his regal rights. The condition of the country was turbulent in the extreme. The battle of Ivry, at which his fate was decided, was a costly one in the loss of life. His personal bravery invested the white plume he wore with a romantic interest, and made the name of Navarre

so dear to the hearts of his hero-worshiping subjects that even his final recantation was forgiven by the Huguenots themselves. It was not until 1594 that he was absolute and undisputed in his claim to the crown. The famous Edict of Nantes, guarantying religious toleration, was issued in April, 1598. His recantation was never satisfactory to the popes, of whom there was several during his reign, and he was on unfriendly terms with that most Catholic king, Philip of Spain. One day as he was riding in his carriage, a papal fanatic, Francis Ravaillac, stabbed him to the heart. Catholic Europe rejoiced in the completion of the bloody work begun by the assassination of his immediate predecessor.

The reign of his son, Louis XIII., extended over a period of thirty-three years (1610–1643). At first he was a mere child under the control of his mother, Mary de Medici, a woman as weak as her kin Catherine had been cruel. She in turn, was controlled by another Italian woman, a lady of her court, who advanced her husband to the highest rank. The real ruler was Leonora Consini. The tutelage continued after the king came of legal age. In 1617 this state of affairs was terminated by the assassination of Consini, the execution for sorcery of his strong-minded wife, and the brief banishment from court of the queen-mother.

Mary de Medici.

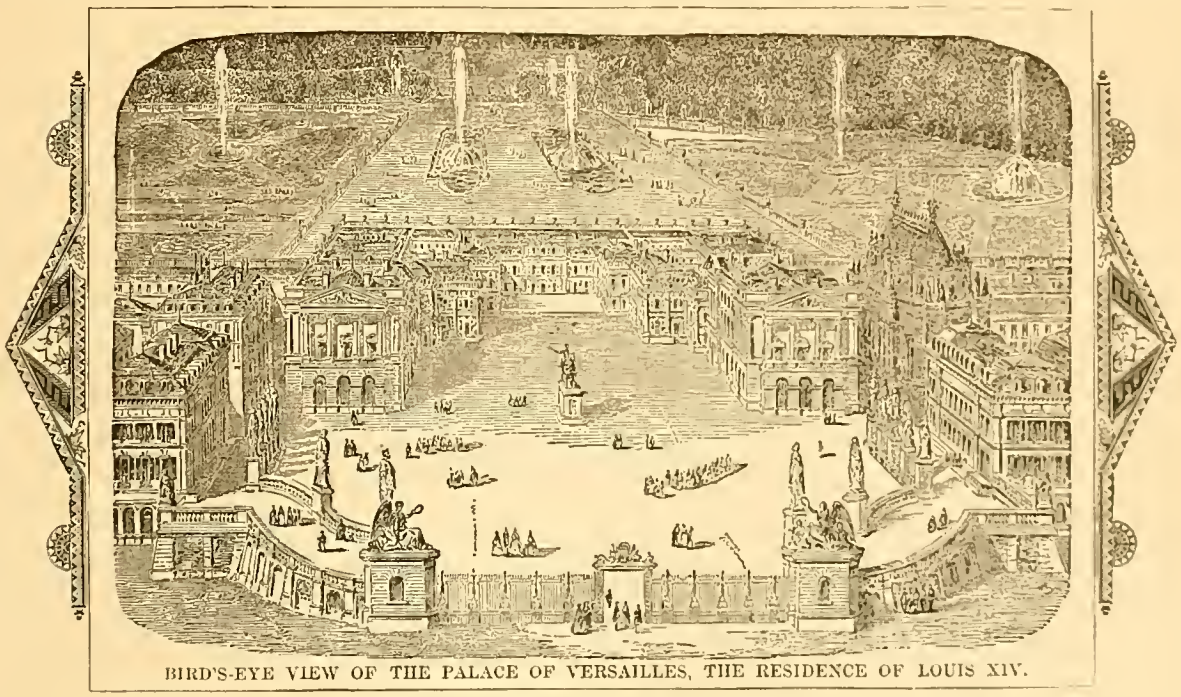
About this time the august figure of Cardinal Richelieu appeared upon the stage of political action. As a provincial bishop he had written some extremely dull books, mostly against the Protestants. He had a genius for government, not for literature. Invested with the cardinal's hat, he came to court as the friend of the queen-mother, but very soon he developed into the master spirit of the government, and swayed the destinies of France with a more absolute hand than Catherine de Medici. His aim through life was threefold: to crush Protestantism, the nobility and Austria. He never for a moment lost sight of either object, and pursued his purpose with a genius which has given his name immortal luster. He seemed, viewed from the standpoint of passing events, to vacillate. He varied his policy, now helping the Protestants in the Thirty-Years War, then putting down their sympathizers at home, and still again bending all his energies to cripple the nobility, irrespective of religion. His eventful life terminated in 1642, success having crowned his triple ambition to a very large extent, especially at home.

RICHELIEU.

The weak Louis XIII. did not long survive his great prime minister. Brave in war, but in peace the mere tool of Richelieu, he gave place the year following the death of that illustrious statesman to Louis XIV., called Louis the Grand, in whom the imperial policy of the cardinal found its fullest embodiment, and by whom the way was quite fully prepared for the horrors which came during the reign of his grandson, Louis XVI. The Grand Monarch wore the crown from 1643 to 1715. The first years of his reign were his only in name. It was not until 1661, when he was twenty-two years of age, that he assumed the actual control of affairs. Cardinal Mazarin succeeded Cardinal Richelieu, and he continued the policy of his predecessor, and rendered his work complete. When he died, early in 1661, everything was ready for autocracy, and Louis XIV. was the ideal autocrat. His motto was "The king is the state." The feudal barons had disappeared or been reduced to political nonentity. Lords were mere courtiers and pensioners. Under Richelieu and Mazarin the crown had become the government to the fullest possible extent, only the real wearer wore also the red hat of a cardinal. But under the new king, now fully arrived at manhood, the real and the seem-

MAZARIN.

ing agreed. The debased and corrupt nobility accepted the situation cheerfully, well pleased to spend their days luxuriously basking in the sunlight of court favors. The king had for his Secretary of the Treasury M. Colbert, one of the greatest of all the financiers of the world, and under his administration of revenue matters the royal coffers were well filled; the times were good, so far as concerned the court and its retinue. France was the foremost nation in Europe. The other courts aped the splendor which characterized the Grand Monarchy had its dark side. The Edict of Nantes was revoked in an evil hour, and in consequence hundreds of thousands of Huguenots, many of them skilled artisans, fled. They were gladly received in Protestant countries, and they took their profitable industries with them. That monstrous mistake of the Magnificent King was of incalculable benefit to England and loss to France. Then, too, he fancied he could regulate the affairs of all Europe and embroiled his country in a war which brought almost the entire military force of the continent, including



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE PALACE OF VERSAILLES, THE RESIDENCE OF LOUIS XIV.

French became the court language of the continent.

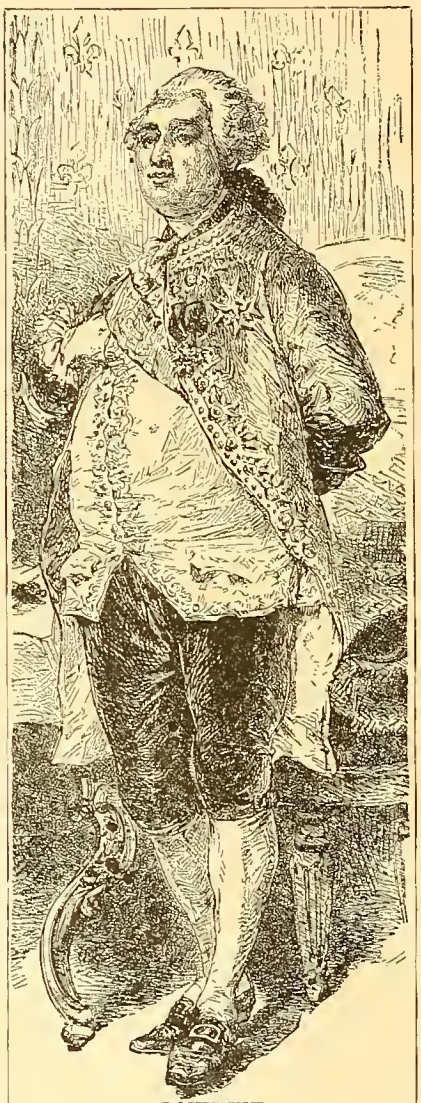
In intellectual pursuits the French made great strides during the latter part of the seventeenth and the early part of the eighteenth century. Montaigne wrote his immortal essays, and Descartes his still greater work on philosophy. Brilliant dramatists arose. The French language was brought to its present state of philological perfection. Architecture flourished. Internal improvements of great importance were made. The land was cultivated intelligently and profitably. The nation prospered in war and in peace. The golden age of royalty had come, and to all appearance had come to stay. The glory of Versailles was world-wide. Even remote Siam was dazzled by its splendor. But the picture

Great Britain, into alliance against the French. It was this coalition which brought out the Duke of Marlborough and secured for England the "glorious victory" of Blenheim. Terrible was the slaughter of the French. It was Waterloo on a small scale, so far as glory and carnage were concerned, but peace did not come until nine years later. Blenheim was fought in 1704. The long and desolating series of wars waged by Louis XIV. resulted in some substantial gains to France, but involved the masses of the people in most extreme misery.

Literature can boast some illustrious names during this reign. The sweet-souled Fenelon and the eloquent Bossuet were the glory of the church. The disquisitions of Fenelon upon spiritual life are in-

stinct with immortality. Pascal with his abrupt and profoundly suggestive genius, belonged to that period. So did the genial and lively La Fontaine, the brilliant and creative Racine, Moliere, La Bruyere and Boileau. Great artists flourished, Lebrun, Regnard, Mignard and de Sevigne; also those great architects, Perrault and Mansard, who constructed the Louvre and Versailles. The French Academy had been founded in Richelieu's day, but many academies of great advantage to the cause of intellectual progress flourished.

All things have an end. In 1715, at the age of seventy-seven, having reigned seventy-two years, this ideal of a despot, this Louis XIV. in whom all the faults and blight of absolutism found their fullest expression, died, worn out by vice and the cares of state. France was on the verge of anarchy. Ambition had been sated. There was no nation so high in the scales of national glory, none so low in the scale of happiness and real prosperity. The people had been sacrificed to the extravagance of the court, and the court had experienced the vanity and vexation of such ineffable meanness. The magnificent sovereign outlived the popularity won by his grandeur. As the funeral train moved through the streets the people indulged in shouts of joy,—the shadow cast before by that great coming event, the French Revolution.



LOUIS XVI.

The new king, Louis XV., was an infant when he came to the throne. The regency was intrusted to the Duke of Orleans, until his death in 1723. He was a debauchee of fairly average ability and character. The only thing to make his rule memorable was the encouragement he gave to the wild scheme of speculation originated and pushed by John Law, known as the "Mississippi Bubble." Law saw the possibilities of the Mississippi Valley and the advantages of paper money. Born in Edinburgh, of humble parents, he laid his plans before more than one court. Louis XIV. had been deaf to his seductions, but the Regent was captivated. A bank of circulation and deposit was organized. Paper money was so easily made and popular withal that the government went into the business on what is now called the fiat plan. An era of wild speculation ensued. Everybody was getting rich. Times were flush. Of course this sort of thing was of short duration. The banks failed, the paper money lost its purchasing power, and the whole scheme proved a bubble. The valley of the Mississippi was vastly more valuable than even Law had conceived, but it was not available until many years later. Indeed, it may be said that John Law was ahead of his times. This country has abundantly demonstrated the wealth of that valley not only, but the feasibility of a currency based on the good faith of the government, as well as the bank-note system. The disasters of the Law craze contributed largely to the general discontent with the existing order of things.

There were some very able financiers during this period of vergence upon revolution. The extravagance of Madame Pompadour and other royal favorites, taxed to the utmost the ingenuity of those having in charge the royal exchequer. It required genius of a high order to meet the public and private demands upon the king's purse. The people were burdened with excessive taxation.

During this period much effort was made to build up a New France. In India the French had a reasonable hope of rivaling England, and in America

they were well established and started in the execution of truly imperial plans. From Quebec to New Orleans extended the country claimed by France. Brave and self-denying men, like LaSalle, Champlain and Marquette, wrought a great work in the new world. But the court was too corrupt to afford proper support, and nothing of a permanent nature remains as the fruit of all such sowing, except the French portion of Canada. In that portion of the British Empire may be found a people who represent the Ante-Revolutionary French. Their ancestors left the old country before the new era, and their descendants suggest what France would have been had the Bourbons and Bourbonism remained regnant in the French nation.

STATUE OF VOLTAIRE.

Louis XV. died May 10, 1774, sixty-three years of age. His long reign, his irregularities and arrogance of power, had completed the destruction of the monarchy. Its actual fall was now only a question of time. His successor, Louis XVI., and his well beloved queen, Marie Antoinette, were the victims of a series of wrongs for which they were not responsible. They garnered the harvest of Bourbon crimes. This country owes him much, for it was during the reign of Louis XVI. that France was the very efficient, if somewhat secret, ally of the United States in the war of Independence. Lafayette was not the only eminent Frenchman of his day who succored us in time of need. The purse of France was liberally opened to us, and the funds supplied were quite as useful as the sword of Lafayette and his brave associates. Enmity to England was not by any means the only incentive to French sympathy with America. The spirit of freedom was moving among the dry bones of France, and intense interest was felt in the cause of American liberty on that account. Beyond a doubt the success of the thirteen rebellious colonies, followed as it was by the establishment of a genuine republic, contributed largely to the revolutionary cause. The feasibility of self-government on a large scale was being demonstrated, and operated as a powerful irritant and stimulant.

It is now time to call attention to the intellectual development of France during this latter part of the eighteenth century. The post of honor should be assigned to that coterie of learned and progressive men who produced the *Encyclopedia*. D'Alembert and Diderot were the leaders. Voltaire contributed to it, but had his individual mission. The object of that great literary work was the emancipation of thought by the dissemination of knowledge. It was the work of men freed from the fetters of old opinions, the manacles of medieval superstition. It was a great pioneer, a proud monument of modern intelligence and mental liberty. Besides this *Encyclopedia* three names should here be recorded, Voltaire, Rousseau and Buffon. The latter was a great naturalist, and as such did much to usher in the present day of scientific observation and classification. Rousseau's was a strangely inconsistent and unlovely character, but he had a genius for the ideal, and a passion for the rights of man. He set forth the beauties and claims of liberty with a persuasiveness which made his pen one of the more potent factors of his time. But the supreme name in the list of pioneers of the Revolution is that of Voltaire. He ranks as the great enemy of the christian church, but the church which he assailed, be it remembered, was very different from the Christianity of the present time, and he himself was a believer in a personal Deity and the future life. Voltaire, more than any other man, was the father of the French Revolution.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

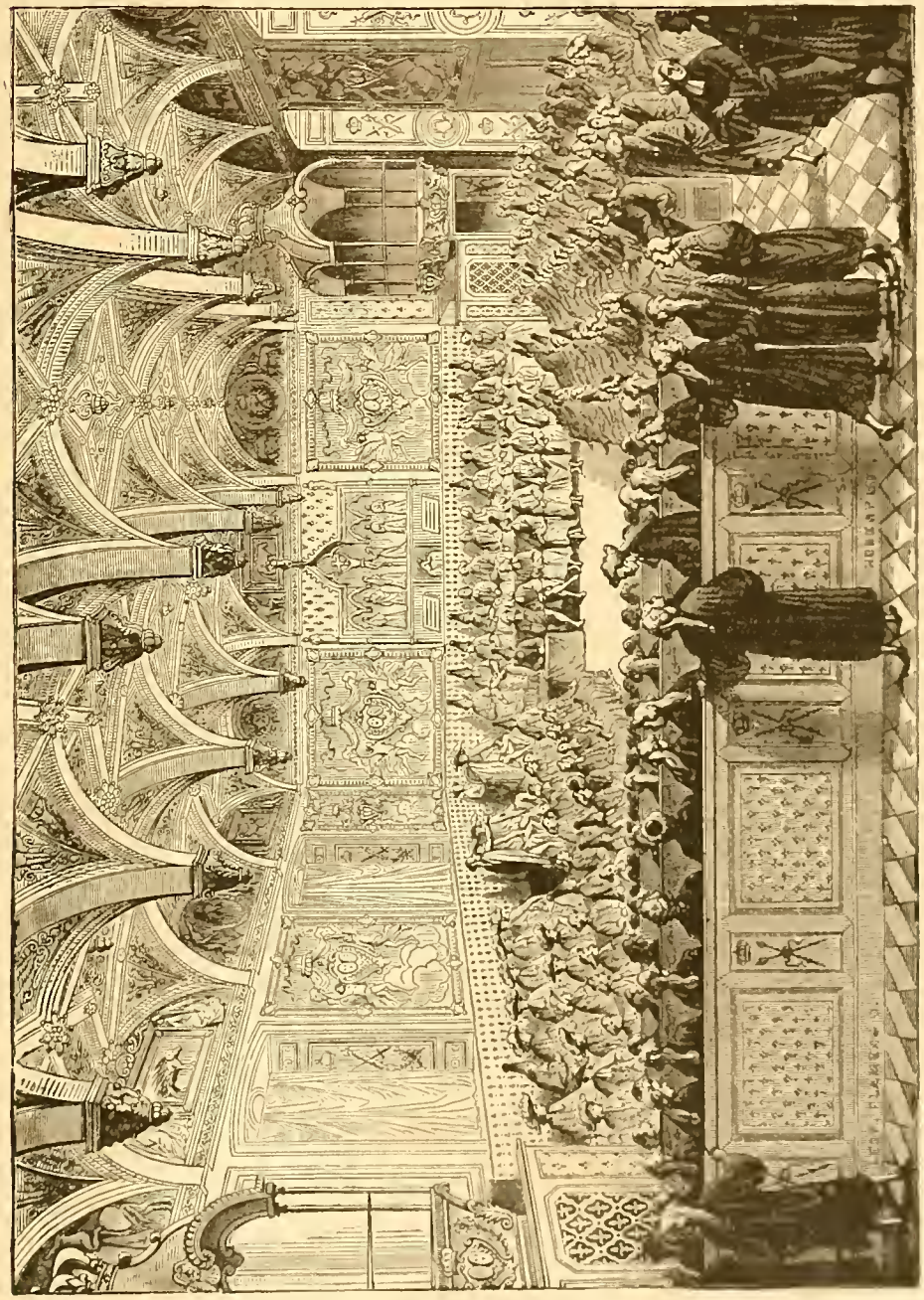
CHAPTER XLVI.

TRIUMPH OF FRENCH MONARCHY—THE STATES-GENERAL—THE THIRD ESTATE—NATIONAL ASSEMBLY—THE BASTILE—THE EMIGRANTS—FLIGHT OF THE ROYAL FAMILY—ROYALTY IN PRISON—THE LEOISLATIVE ASSEMBLY—CHANGE OF THE CALENDAR—THE JACOBINS—TRIAL AND EXECUTION OF THE KING—THE GIRONDISTS AND THOMAS PAINE—THE REIGN OF TERROR—THE DIRECTORY—ST. BARTHOLOMEW AVENGED—NAPOLEON AND THE REVOLUTION—NOTABLE CHARACTERS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD: MIRABEAU, MARIE ANTOINETTE, CHARLOTTE CORDAY, MARAT, DANTON AND ROBESPIERRE— THE REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON.

THE triumph of .French monarchy over both feudalism and the rights of the people reached its highest culmination in the disappearance from the politics of the country of the States-General, or parliament of France. The king was then not only supreme,but single in authority, sharing nothing with any class, order or institution in the land. The reappearance of the States-General, the assembling once more of that body, was a no less distinctive recognition of the decay of absolutism. The date of the former was 1644, while Louis XIII. wore the crown; the date of the latter was 1787, when Louis XVI. began to feel the need of props for the throne. That period, 143 years, was one of splendid misery, of gilded and gorgeous infamy.

The States-General consisted of three estates, as they are generally designated, the nobility, the clergy and representatives of the citizens. The right, however, of the third estate to sit with the first and second estates was sharply contested. The former stood for the bourgeois, or towns-folk, whose importance was a gradual growth.

Louis XVI. found that he had evoked a dangerous power, resorted to a perilous expedient. The first and second estates were tractable enough, but the popular or bourgeois element had acquired a self-poise and independence which alarmed his majesty. Hardly had this parliament been convened before a royal decree was issued for its dissolution. But the sovereign was not sovereign. When the order came, Mirabeau, the Patrick Henry of the French Revolution, boldly refused to obey the mandate. He belonged to and spoke for the third estate. The attempt was then made to disperse the body by the bayonet, but that plan utterly failed. Behind the bayonets were soldiers who were patriots, and they refused to obey orders. So far from breaking up the States-General, they formed a militia called the National Guards. At the head of this noble military body was the grand Marquis Gilbert de Lafayette, whose services in behalf of American liberty had endeared him to the friends of freedom in his own land. The organization had for its avowed purpose the protection of the National



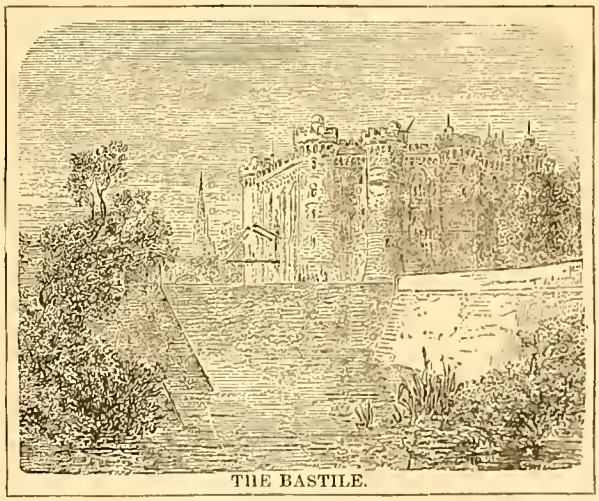
MEETING OF THE STATES-GENERAL.

Assembly, the new and improved name assumed by the undismayed members of the States-General.

LAFAYETTE.

From States-General to National Assembly was a step of incalculable importance. It was with great reluctance that the clergy and nobility joined the new body. The king tried most assiduously to maintain the royal prerogative. All sorts of petty devices were resorted to, but all to no purpose. Mirabeau and his compatriots resolved to secure for their country constitutional government, and they were not to be baffled. The spirit of high resolve and heroic patriotism was absolutely dauntless.

The first meeting of the National Assembly was held May 5, 1789, and it was on the 14th of the following July, that the Bastile fell, making a day forever fresh in the memory of every Frenchman. July Fourteenth is to France much what July Fourth is to America. The Bastile was something more than an ancient jail, as the Declaration of Independence was something more than a disavowal of allegiance to the British Crown. That prison was a body animated by the spirit of despotism in its most hideous form. Built by Charles V., in 1370, it had been repaired, enlarged and made increasingly odious by subsequent monarchs. It was not a prison for criminals, but for political offenders, unconvicted, but obnoxious to royalty, or to some court favorite. The only formula used in condemning one to the Bastile was the *lettre de cachet*. The prisoner was left in ignorance of the cause or duration of his punishment, and not allowed to communicate with friends. Voltaire was once incarcerated there. On the fourteenth of July the populace literally leveled the massive building to the ground, killed the governor, De Launay, and liberated the prisoners. The real leaders of the mob were women, respectable but plebeian. Paris, it may be remarked, is notable for the prominence of its women both in business and politics. The keys of the Bastile were sent to George Washington, and by him presented to the government of the United States, to be kept among the more treasured archives at the capital of the republic which French valor and gold had done so much to establish.



THE BASTILE.

The destruction of the Bastile was so swift and complete that it terrified the nobility. Many of them fled incontinently from the country, and became refugees at foreign courts. They were called and are known in history as *emigres*, or emigrants. They were very active throughout the Revolutionary period, plotting for the defeat of liberty and the reestablishment of despotism.

The king and queen were very much alarmed by the great uprising. They could not be wholly blind to the significance of that destruction. It certainly boded no good to monarchy. The royal family retired to Versailles, in the hope of being secure from popular indignation without an abandonment of the throne. It was a half-way measure and ill-advised. Presently a vast mob, with fishwomen and the like at the front, marched thither. Emboldened by the royal flight and aggravated by the journey, they would have slain the king and queen had it not been for the kindly and brave intervention of Lafayette. He shielded the king and his household, at the same time inducing them to return to Paris. He acted in the capacity of a peacemaker between the mob and the crown.

The king was now a prisoner in his own palace, virtually, and the populace had absolute authority. The leveling process begun at the fall of the Bastile

was rapidly carried to an unprecedented length. Titles were abolished. The king himself was Citizen Louis Capet, and the queen merely a citizeness. They were not even free, but rather prisoners in the palace of the Tuilleries.

In an evil moment the royal couple tried to escape, and join the Emigrants beyond the border. They were foiled. Recaptured and in confinement, their condition was pitiable in the extreme. Just one year after the Bastile fell, and in commemoration of its fall, the people adopted a Constitution. That was a most important step toward freedom, and would have been even if the constitution had been despotic in character. The bare fact that the people had secured an organic law was of the most serious moment. That constitution compelled the king to swear fealty to it. His attempted flight was regarded as a violation of his oath. For that unavailing endeavor to flee, the royal household were imprisoned in a lonely castle. In the meanwhile the Emigrants had not been idle. They sought to arouse the fears and enlist the sympathies of other European monarchs and monarchists. Their efforts were by no means fruitless. Soon an army of no mean dimensions marched into France towards Paris, sent thither from Austria and Prussia both. The object of these military operations was to put an end to the Revolution. But that only made a bad matter worse for the king and his friends. The revolutionists were abundantly able to repel invasion and suppress discontent.

The National Assembly was not quite democratic enough to suit the popular demand, and the more truly representative body, the Legislative Assembly, took its place for a short time. On the twentieth of September, 1792, that too gave place to the still more democratic National Convention, as it was called. The latter decreed the total and perpetual abolition of royalty in France and the permanent establishment of a republican form of government.

The French Republic began by making an unwise change in the calendar. Unmindful of the importance of uniformity among all civilized nations in the measurement of time, the revolutionists proposed to make a radical alteration. Not only was time to be measured by days and months bearing new names (in itself of trivial consequence), but the establishment of the Republic was to supersede the birth of Jesus Christ for dating purposes. Instead of "the year of our Lord," common to all Christendom, France was to measure time by distance from the culminating point of the French Revolution. And in place of weeks of seven days were established periods of ten days. The folly and inconvenience of a provincial, in place of a cosmopolitan calendar, seemed to be quite overlooked in a mad frenzy to break down the associations of the Christian era with the new order of things.

The Republican government was fatally deficient in conservatism, which is as necessary in reformation as radicalism.

The Anti-Christian and utterly revolutionary party was called Jacobins. The name applies, primarily, to a political society founded in 1789 and superseded in 1794. Carlyle calls them "Lords of the Articles," adding, "they originate debates for the legislative; discuss peace and war; settle beforehand what the legislative is to do." This society, or club, had its branches in all parts of France. At first Lafayette and other moderate republicans belonged to it, but later it fell under the influence of Robespierre and Danton. Mirabeau died early in the revolution; Lafayette was left behind in the march of radicalism, and a reign of terror was inaugurated. From the declaration of the Republic to the fall of Robespierre, the last of the Jacobins, was less than two years, but in that brief time was wrought a work which shocked the humane sensibilities of the world and has never ceased to be a reproach to the cause of self-government.

The king, "Citizen Louis Capet," was brought to trial for complicity with the Emigrants in conspiracy against the republic, December 11, 1792. Upon his trial Thomas Paine, who had rendered the United States incalculable service as a journalist during the Revolutionary War, and who was then a member of the National Convention, made a powerful argument in defense of the king, or rather, in favor of mitigating his punishment to banishment to America. But the sentence of death was passed upon him, and he was guillotined January 21, 1793. The queen shared his fate, after a delay of a few months. The heir to the crown, the Dauphin, died in prison when about nine years of age, the victim of cruel treatment.

The opposers of these extreme measures were called Girondists. A great may of them were

guillotined for their moderation. Mr. Paine, who belonged to that party, owed his escape from death to a fortunate accident and the tardy intervention of the United States. The accident referred to was this: his door was chalk-marked for execution, as was supposed, but in reality the mark was on the inside of the door of the adjoining cell, and when both doors were closed no sign of death was visible. That blunder, trivial in itself, saved the life of Thomas Paine, and it was during his imprisonment, while waiting for death, that he wrote his treatise on religion, called "The Age of Reason." Had it not been for that chalk-mark blunder the most notable attack on the Christian religion ever penned in the English language, before the present generation, would never have been written. Himself an extreme, if not a violent radical, in religion and politics, Paine was quite too conservative to suit the leaders of the French Revolution.

The Reign of Terror stands out in history as a horrid nightmare. For months Paris and France at large seemed wholly given up to the ravages of monstrous cruelty. In the name of freedom, equalty and fraternity the most outrageous and revolting crimes were perpetrated. The guillotine was kept constantly busy and bloody. It was not alone the enemies of the Revolution who were brought to the block. The mad frenzy of the period decimated the ranks of the revolutionists themselves. Many were the victims of their own policy. The most extreme radical of them all, Hebert, was brought to the guillotine by Robespierre on the twenty-fourth of March, 1794, and on the fifth of the next month Danton shared his fate. July 28th of the same year Robespierre himself was executed, thus completing the circle and carrying the policy of terror to its logical sequence. The Convention was no longer put in the background by the leaders of the Jacobins.

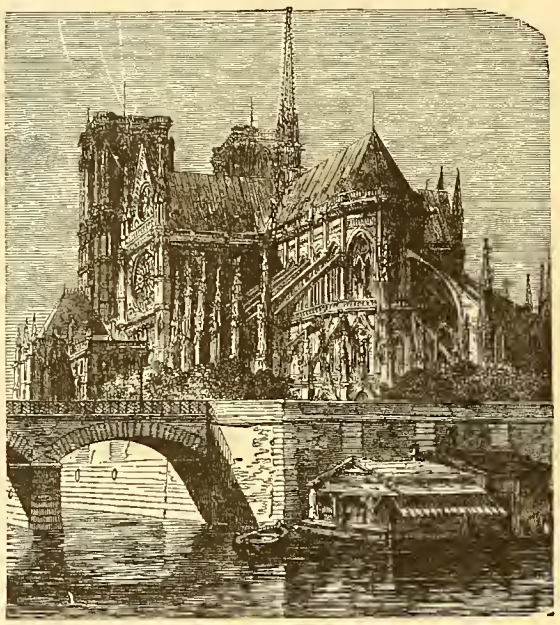
Early in the following year the National Convention adopted a new constitution, and under that organic law the executive authority of the government was placed in the hands of a Directory, consisting of five members. The intractables resisted this substitution of regular authority for anarchical cruelty, and their resistance brought Napoleon Bonaparte to the front for the first time, who quelled the Parisian mob October 5, 1795. From that time on, other factors of more or less prominence entered into the history of France, besides the Revolution. The Reign of Terror was over, but revolutionary ideas remained, and have never ceased to be fruitful of great and greatly beneficent results.

It is due to the truth of history to add that the honors of the Jacobin period were really insignificant as compared with that one horror, the Massacre of St. Bartholomew in 1572. More blood was shed that one night than during all the period from the fall of the Bastile to the establishment of the Directory. After two centuries the supreme crime of French history was avenged.

The wars of Napoleon form a separate chapter. The desperate resolution of the monarchical governments of Europe to prevent the establishment of a permanent republic in France furnished that "grey-eyed man of destiny" the opportunity to distinguish himself, and out of the necessities of war erect an empire, transient, indeed, but none the less imperial. The inevitable drift of war is toward absolutism. The executive functions of government were intrusted to a Directory which felt jealousy of Napoleon's rising power. But between the reestablishment of the old monarchy and the peril of a new dynasty there was no choice but to give loose rein to "the man on horseback." Napoleon's first political office was that of First Consul, which title was bestowed upon him after the Italian and Egyptian campaigns. That was just as the eighteenth century was closing. The Directory gave place to three Consuls, the Corsican being the first. The other two were little more than figure-heads.

With the dawn of the nineteenth century the Republic of France ceased to exist, in point of fact, as a vital force, and notwithstanding a few spasmodic movements, was dormant for seventy years. The empire followed the consulate. After Marengo and Hohenlinden Napoleon was made Consul for life with power to name his successor. That was the substance of imperialism. The full recognition of it soon followed. In 1804 he was elected Emperor, not of France, but of the French, a distinction with some difference. The Grand Louis had claimed France as a family estate; the greater Bonaparte accepted its government as the gift of the people. Pope Leo had crowned Charlemagne at Rome; Napoleon, after a lapse of many centuries, summoned his successor, Pius VII., to Paris to give solemnity

and *eclat* to his coronation at Notre Dame. The imposing ceremony occurred December 2, 1804. As Emperor he henceforth waged war, made laws and carved out kingdoms. His achievements as a ruler were great, but for the most part they belong to the Consular period of his rule. The Code Napoleon is still a grand monument of legal wisdom and administrative skill. Although bearing his name, his only credit is that he allowed the highest political wisdom of the French Revolution to crystalize. That was a great deal, and for it he deserves liberal gratitude. The Code Napoleon conserved the best results of what, with all its faults, was the grandest of all political uprisings, and whatever the mutations of the government since then, the country has never ceased to enjoy the benefits of that codification. Whether king, emperor, president or commune has held sway in France during the present century, the common law of justice and the mechanism of public affairs have enjoyed a stability of incalculable benefit. Out of the wild horrors of the Reign of Terror came forth a body of laws, and a system of administration, which have enabled France to prosper, whatever the form of government.



NOTRE DAME.

It remains to speak more in detail of the specially conspicuous characters of the revolutionary period.

At the head of this list, not to mention here Voltaire, Rousseau and the other inspirers of the movement, stands Honore Gabriel Requetti Mirabeau, the first, greatest and wisest of its parliamentary leaders. He was born in Provence in 1749. Massive, ugly and disfigured in person, his eloquence was of the very highest order. He entered the last States-General ever assembled as a representative of the third estate, and almost from the first became the leader of the popular wing of that body. He remained the undisputed leader of the revolutionary party until his death, April 2, 1791. He was not a republican. His theory of government finds its expression in the limited monarchy of Great Britain; but he was a reformer whose plowshare ran deep down into the subsoil of despotism. Had the improvements which he advocated been effected, the long strides toward justice and liberty which he recommended been actually taken, Louis Capet and Marie Antoinette might have been saved, and the Reign of Terror been averted. The genius of Mirabeau has at last found very substantial embodiment, and the French revolutionist's highest vindication is the present republic of France.

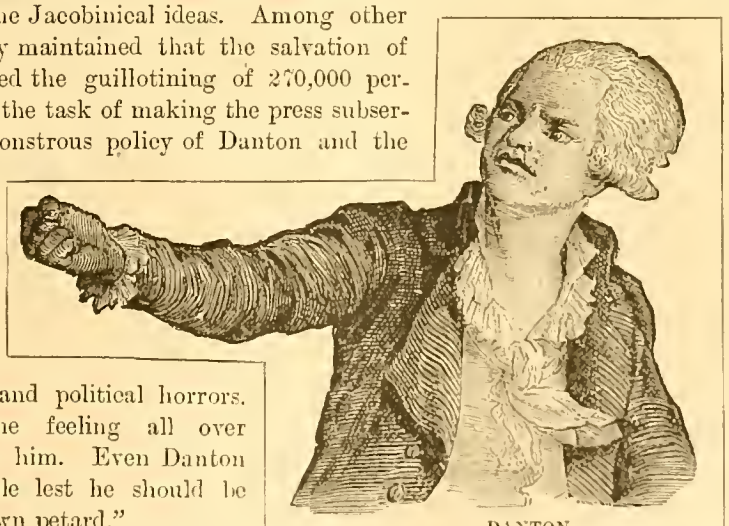
A peculiar interest attaches to the melancholy fate of Marie Antoinette, fifth daughter of Maria Theresa of Austria, and wife of Louis XVI. A pure and lovely lady, she was unfortunate in having a very haughty manner and being a stickler for all court etiquette. She was never popular at court. Her virtues and her austerity combined to make her disliked. When the revolution began she was especially unpopular with courtiers and the people. Under the trials and afflictions of her royal husband, and their ill-starred children, she developed a heroism which has made her an object of adoration in the temple of posthumous fame. She shared the calamities of the Bourbons in a way to reflect high honor upon the house of the Hapsburgs. After long imprisonment she was brought before the Revolutionary Tribunal October 13, 1793, where she

Marie Antoinette.

defended herself with sublime indignation and eloquence. But all to no purpose. On the third day following she was borne to the scaffold. The ride from prison to the guillotine occupied two hours. On either side of her tumbril were rows of soldiers, and the streets were filled with a jeering mob. The populace saw in her simply a conspicuous representative of immemorial despotism and spoliation.

JEAN PAUL MARAT.

The first place in the roll of dishonor, as guilty of perverting a revolution which was in itself sublime, belongs to Jean Paul Marat, a native of Switzerland. A physician by education, a dwarf in form, he became a popular idol on account of the vigor with which he assailed with his pen the upper classes, including the rich and the titled. From September 12, 1789, to July 14, 1793, Marat conducted a journal which was the organ of the most extreme Jacobinical ideas. Among other things he coolly maintained that the salvation of France demanded the guillotining of 270,000 persons. His was the task of making the press subservient to the monstrous policy of Danton and the other terrorists. His journal, issued under different names, supplied the oil to the lamp of popular frenzy and political horrors. Intense was the feeling all over France against him. Even Danton came to tremble lest he should be "hoist by his own petard."



DANTON.

This man Marat met his fate at the hand of Charlotte Corday, a young lady of Normandy, beautiful, pious, intellectual and enthusiastic. She conceived it to be her patriotic and religious duty to assassinate Marat. Accordingly she came to Paris, gained admission to his house, found him in a bath, plunged a knife into his heart and calmly awaited her fate. The assassination occurred July 13, 1793. A few days later she was guillotined. Lamartine expressed the verdict of history when he wrote, "In beholding her act of assassination history dares not applaud; nor yet, while contemplating her sublime self-devotion, can it stigmatize or condemn."

Danton was hardly less radical and relentless than Marat. He was an orator very popular with the lower classes of the Paris populace. His stentorian voice was always raised for blood and vengeance. He filled the position of Minister of Justice during the time when that meant chief of the guillotine. So long as the Girondists, or moderate republicans, furnished victims for the knife and block, Danton, Marat and Robespierre, the triumvirate of terror, cooperated, but when the thirst for blood demanded victims from among the Jacobins themselves, dissension was inevitable. Danton was an atheist, Robespierre a deist. The latter was indeed hostile to all existing and organized religions, but he believed in a Supreme Being, and caused Danton to be executed for enthroning Reason as the God of worship. Danton fell April 5, 1794.

Robespierre, the last of the Jacobin leaders to perish in the furnace of his own construction, was a lawyer of Arras. In the early part of the Revolution he bore an inconspicuous part. It was as the head

of the Jacobin club that he realized his ambition. He was an earnest advocate of the execution of the king, and the prosecution of the Girondists. After the execution of Danton and the assassination of Marat he was virtually dictator of France. Then it was that he attempted to undo the atheistic influence of Danton by a speech in honor of the Deity. He made himself ridiculous by posing in the character of a pietist, and to the laugh raised over his deism rather than to the detestation of his cruelties, may be attributed his fall and execution. His power and prestige were drowned in ridicule. When his arrest was decreed he tried in vain to lift his voice in self-defense. The privilege he had so often denied to others was refused him, and the next day after he had been hurried to prison he was guillotined. His name will forever stand as a synonym for the horrors of the Reign of Terror. It was his bad preeminence to be foremost in disgracing, perverting and retarding what was, despite all perversions, the grandest and most beneficent revolution the world ever saw.

Robespierre.

In his history of the French Revolution, Lamartine, speaking of the period at which we have arrived says, "The Revolution had only lasted five years. These five years were five centuries for France. Never perhaps on this earth did any nation ever produce in so short a time such an eruption of ideas, new notions, characters, geniuses, talents, catastrophies, crimes and virtues. Men were born like the instantaneous personification of things that should think, speak or act." While there were turmoil and terror at home, there were brilliant achievements in battle. Napoleon was not the only great hero. Hocke, Jourdan, and Moreau were commanders of consummate ability, but they were not only eclipsed by the subsequent splendors of Napoleon, but by the stupendous intellect of Carnot, Minister of War, the Stanton of France. His work for the armies of France in those days can only be appreciated by those who know something of the debt the United States owes Edwin M. Stanton.

When Napoleon returned from Egypt (1799) the Directory had become very unpopular, and the way was prepared for that final crisis, known as the Revolution of the 18th and 19th Brumaire. That was the movement which supplanted the Directory with the Consulate. The fear of another Reign of Terror occasioned the transition. Napoleon was in command of the troops in and about Paris, and entered the Council Chamber not to go out until he had in effect revolutionized the government. The proceedings of that memorable occasion, as narrated by Anderson, may well close this chapter: "He addressed them [the Council of the Ancients] declaring that the constitution had been violated, that it was not strong enough to save France from anarchy; he said that he had only accepted the command of the troops for the purpose of bringing the strong arms of the nation to the support of the deputies who constituted its head, and ended by promising to resign his power as soon as the danger was passed. He afterwards entered the hall of the Five Hundred with four grenadiers to make a similar speech, when the whole assembly rose as one man with cries of 'Down with the Dictator!' and crowded around him, one member even attempting his life; but he was rescued by fresh arrivals of troops, and left the hall. In the confusion which followed, a report was circulated among the troops that the deputies had attempted their general's life; and a detachment of grenadiers then entered the hall, and cleared it at the point of the bayonet."

NAPOLEON AND HIS CAMPAIGNS.

CHAPTER XLVII.

NAPOLEON'S PLACE IN HISTORY—BIRTH AND EARLY CAREER—THE ITALIAN CAMPAIGN—THE EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN—NAPOLEON AND THE ALLIES JOIN ISSUES—MARENGO AND HOHENLINDEN—AUSTERLITZ AND THE COLUMN VENDOME—TRAFALGAR, JENA AND VIENNA—ON TO MOSCOW! AND THE RESULT—THE FALL, EXILE AND DEATH OF NAPOLEON.

THE genius of Richelieu invested the name of France with the supreme splendors of royalty; Voltaire and Diderot lifted it to the highest rank of intellectual progress, and Napoleon illumined the whole nation with military glory, raising a martial monument which even the Franco-Prussian War could not level to the ground. Barbarian though he was, emulous of the fame of Alexander and Cæsar, rather than the vastly higher honor of constructing a republican edifice worthy the present age upon the ruins of kingly despotism, he fills so large a place in the early part of the nineteenth century that his campaigns demand conspicuous consideration. In him we see the supreme effort of the old idea of conquest to resist a loftier ambition more consonant with the spirit of the age, namely the popular demand for equal rights and exact justice.

NAPOLEON I.

Napoleon Bonaparte was a native of the small island of Corsica, then only recently added to French territory. He was born August 15, 1769. His father was a lawyer who died in early manhood, leaving the care of a numerous family to his energetic widow. Napoleon was the second son. He was educated for the profession of arms at Paris. Being snubbed, as he thought, in his first army experience, he applied for leave to tender his sword to the Sultan of Turkey. One can but regret the denial of his wish. He was made a lieutenant in the army at the age of sixteen. When Robespierre fell he was in danger of disgrace, if nothing worse, for he was suspected of sympathy with that monster. But his insignificance shielded him. His first distinction was won in devising an acceptable and successful plan for quelling the mob which assailed the convention in the Tuilleries soon after Robespierre had fallen. As the reward of his services then he was given command of the forces in and about Paris.

The next spring Napoleon was sent to Italy to take command of one of the three armies engaged in the defense of the Republic against the "Emigrants" and their monarchical allies. He was only twenty-seven years of age, very short and slim. His troops early and always loved to call him "The Little Corporal." The Austrians whom he encountered there conceived contempt for his youth. At Monte Notte, April 12, 1796, he won his first victory over the enemies of his country. It was with good reason that he afterwards dated his patent of nobility from that battle. His next exploit was the passage of his army over the river Adda at Lodi. The battle of Lodi was a brilliant victory, won by bravery and skill. So remarkable were his movements and their results, that he soon attracted the attention of Europe, and was seen to be a great soldier. He destroyed no less than five Austrian armies in that Italian campaign. So terrible was the destruction, that a year after he took command a treaty of peace was signed by which France gained great advantage and Vienna itself was spared the ravages of sack by the troops of Napoleon. Other treaties followed as fruits of that campaign. He returned to Paris to be received with the honors due his genius and successes.

Napoleon was something of an elephant upon the hands of the republic. To provide a safe outlet for the restless military energies of himself and his soldiers, who had fought just enough to want to keep on fighting, an expedition into Egypt was planned. It was indeed a wild-goose chase, if ever there was one. Soldiers and *savans* set sail from Toulon in the summer of 1798, with no definite idea of what they did want. Turkish Mamelukes met them in hostile array. The "Battle of the Pyramids" was fought with success to the French arms. The British fleet, under Lord Nelson, attacked the French fleet at Alexandria, and won a naval victory which for a short time cut off Napoleon's communication with France, but he easily made himself master of Egypt, except the seaport town of Acre, garrisoned by English troops. He marched into Palestine, and returned to confront a Turkish army, and gained the victory of Aboukir, which closed his Egyptian campaign. In the fall of 1799 he returned to France. The people hailed him as a glorious hero. His march through France was a mighty ovation, and the honors and authority of First Consul came to him in the way set forth in the previous chapter. Europe saw in the new head of the French government an exceedingly dangerous character. Previous apprehensions ripened into certainty, and from henceforth it was only a question of time when the combined power of the other nations of Europe would crush him or he them. For fifteen years the struggle continued, with only slight truces. Finding himself in hostility to all Europe, Napoleon seemed determined to conquer and reconstruct the whole continent,—not that either he or the allies clearly appreciated the irrepressibleness of the conflict at the outset, but that from the time the hero of Lodi and Aboukir became the First Consul there was no alternative for either of the two parties but unconditional surrender.

In May, 1800, Napoleon crossed the Alps by a way supposed to be impassable and swooped down upon the Austrians. The battle of Marengo was soon fought and won. About that time another French army in Germany, under Moreau, gained the splendid victory of Hohenlinden. By midsummer Napoleon was back in Paris, assiduously applying himself to the reconstruction of the government of France. For several years he was engaged in developing the resources, improving the laws and political institutions of the country. In 1804 he was elected emperor. All this while it was evident that no real peace had been negotiated and on both sides preparations were being made for another encounter.

Early in 1805 Napoleon took the field. England made no secret of its hostility, and Russia and Austria formally declared war against France. In October Napoleon entered Germany, and on the 30th of November he took posession of Vienna, occupying the splendid palace of the Schonbrunn. Twelve days later was fought the ever-memorable battle of Austerlitz. The energies which had been accumulating during the few years of peace were let loose. Napoleon won his most illustrious victory on that day. Among the trophies of the battle were twelve hundred Austrian cannons. They were afterwards melted down and used as the bronze for the famous column erected at Paris in memory of that victory in the Place Vendome.

But the success of the French on the land had an offset in the defeat of the French navy in the battle of Trafalgar, fought in October of that year.

RETREAT OF THE FRENCH FROM MOSCOW.

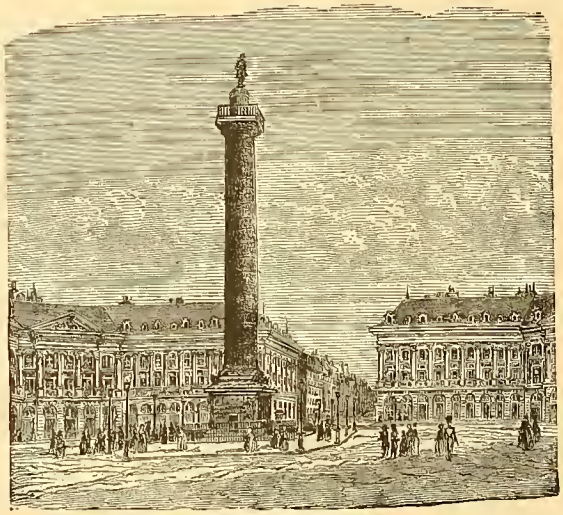
Lord Nelson very nearly annihilated the enemy. That did not, however, prevent Napoleon from being absolute on the continent. It made England undisputed mistress of the seas. The French Emperor none the less proceeded to cut up Europe into kingdoms, and parcel it out among his brothers and favorites as if it were a private estate. His elder brother, Joseph, he made king of Spain, and another brother became the king of Holland. Prussia had been neutral and was rewarded with Hanover, the old possession of the present English dynasty. Several of the smaller German states were under Napoleonic "protection." But Frederick of Prussia did not long remain neutral. As soon as he declared war against Napoleon the Eagles of France flew to Prussia. The battle of Jena was fought, and the victorious French Emperor entered Berlin in triumph. Still another brother was given a kingdom, and soon the royal family of Portugal took refuge in Brazil. There was disaffection in Germany which was quelled by the victories of Eckmuhl and Essling, followed by another occupancy of Vienna, and the treaty of Vienna. Thus the continent was prostrate at the feet of "The Little Corporal." That was in the fall of 1809.

BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ.

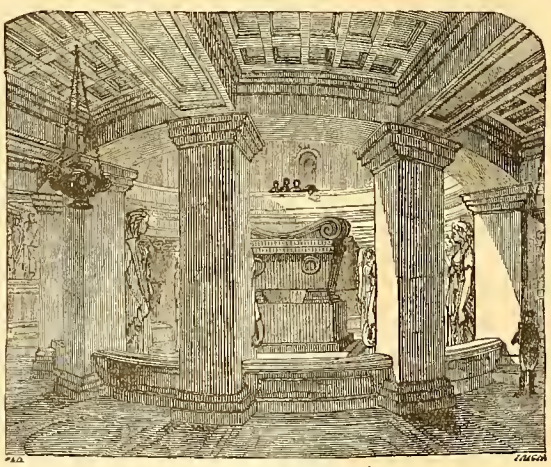
Napoleon's star had now reached its zenith.

Flushed by his victories, he was emboldened to undertake the conquest of Russia. As the winter of 1812-13 set in he set out for Moscow. After a long, weary march he came in sight of that ancient capital of the Muscovite Empire. The city was in flames. The people had set fire to the town, rather than afford shelter from the wintry blast, for the enemy. It was a desperate but heroic expedient. The desired effect was produced. The army of invasion was compelled to return through the snow. The loss was terrible. Of the four hundred thousand French soldiers who started on that expedition only about fifty thousand survived. That was the most disastrous expedition in all history. It crippled the force of

Napoleon beyond all recovery and made Waterloo possible. Fresh troops were recruited and a powerful army was soon in the field. Napoleon had no idea of surrender. In August of 1813 he defeated the allies at Dresden, but was obliged, nevertheless, to retreat into France. Blücher led 130,000 Prussians, and Wellington was at the head of a powerful English army in Portugal and Spain. Those two great captains, destined to conquer the great conqueror, slowly moved toward each other. France was now for the first time since Napoleon came to the front the battlefield. On the heights of Montmartre, overlooking Paris, was fought a battle which resulted in victory for the allies, and on the 31st of March, 1814, Alexander of Russia and Frederick of Prussia took possession of Paris and dictated terms of peace. The Emperor was obliged to abdicate and accept imprisonment upon the island of Elba. That little island was to be his "empire." There he was to hold miniature court. It was a sweet revenge to think of the great dictator as "cribbed and cabined" within such narrow limits.



PLACE VENDOME.



NAPOLEON'S TOMB.

On the 20th of April Napoleon took his sorrowful departure for that island but on the first of March next following he set foot upon the soil of France once more. He had eluded the vigilance of the allies. Tremendous was the popular enthusiasm. The Bourbon who had been placed upon the throne, Louis XVIII., was powerless. Popular enthusiasm knew no bounds. Everybody seemed to be in ecstasies of delight over the return of the hero of Austerlitz. The soldiers and people vied in enthusiasm. The king was glad to escape with his life, and Napoleon was Emperor once more. The war was renewed. The allies were not content to allow the restoration of the empire. Early in June a combined English and Russian army was quartered at some distance from each other in the neighborhood of Brussels under Wellington and Blücher. Napoleon raised an army of 150,000 men to resist them. On the 18th of June, 1815, was fought the battle of Waterloo. Wellington was almost beaten, but Blücher came to his succor just in time to turn the scale. The defeat of the French was utter. On the twentieth instant Napoleon re-entered Paris, a vanquished fugitive. His plan was to find asylum in America, but he was arrested by the allies and sent to the lonely island of St. Helena from which he never escaped. Henceforth he was a close prisoner of war, the farce of a Lilliputian empire being altogether abandoned. There he died, May 5, 1821, and with him perished (it may be hoped for all time to come) the last ambition of the Universal Empire.

BATTLE OF WATERLOO.

LATTER-DAY FRANCE.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

A Great Experiment and its Result—Louis Philippe—Louis Napoleon and his Coup d'etat—The Empire—The Siege of Paris and the Avenging of Jena—The Crisis—Centralization in France—Importance of Paris—National Contentment, Land and "Rentes"—Religion and Education—Colonial Possessions—Contemporary French Literature.

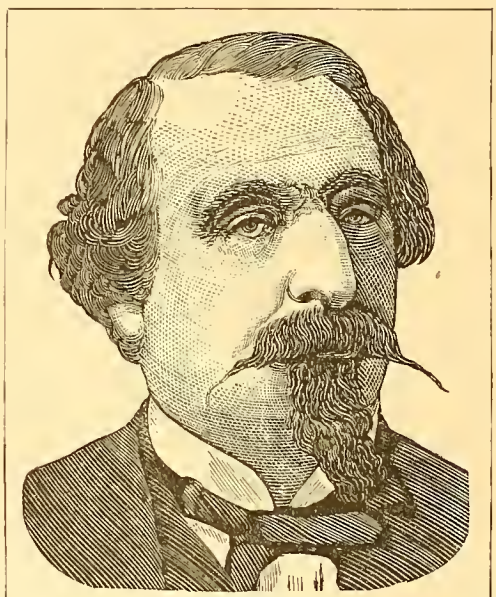
WITH the fall of the Emperor Napoleon a reaction in favor of monarchy set in. The French nation seemed to be tired of all that savored of newness, and to long for the old ways. Louis XVIII., a Bourbon in blood and character, was placed upon the throne. He did much to restore the ancient *regime*. His death occurred in 1824, and at that time the reaction seemed to be permanent. The king himself had been less reactionary than the Council which surrounded him. But no sooner had his brother, Charles X., succeeded him upon the throne than the depth and strength of the sentiment among the people for liberty began to assert itself. Charles was disposed to be imperious and presumptuous. He carried things with a somewhat absolute will, the monarchical and democratic parties getting warmer and more bitter all the time; until in 1830 the king was compelled to give up the struggle. His only safety, as an individual, was in abdication. The grim specter of Louis XVI. terrified him into abdicating in favor of his cousin of the Orleans family, who was crowned Louis Philippe. The crafty cousin declined the scepter as a royal gift, thereby securing a popular confirmation of his authority, for so democratic a declination brought out, as expected and designed, an expression of the people.

For eighteen years Louis Philippe ruled France, careful ever to respect the constitutional limitations of his prerogatives. This king was not royal in virtues or vices. Without being quite what would be called a bad man he was sordid, avaricious and tricky. His best trait or characteristic was a sincere admiration for America and high appreciation of the just place among nations of the United States. If mediocre in mind and

LOUIS PHILIPPE.

uneventful in career, he was remarkably modern in his sympathies. King though he was, Louis Philippe was in every sense a part of Latter-day France. His reign terminated, as it began, in abdication. It had fairly demonstrated that the French, unlike the English, would not voluntarily accept monarchy, however hedged about by popular concessions. That was the one significant thing about the reign of the three post-Napoleonic kings, more especially the last and best of the trio. The great experiment of royalty in the France of the nineteenth century was thoroughly tried, and the fact of incompatibility fully established.

When Louis Philippe laid down the scepter the election of a President was the first public business in order. Choice fell on Louis Napoleon, "nephew of his uncle," and that solely because he was the nephew of the man who had made France brilliant with military glory. He was looked upon as a hair-brained, weak and harmless young man. But beneath his placid exterior beat a heart ambitious of imperial power. His secret purpose was to be to his uncle what Augustus Cæsar had been to Julius Cæsar. He proceeded cautiously. His age at the time of his election was forty years. He solemnly swore to deliver the trust to his successor four years later, but had no intention of doing so. The peasantry idolized the great name he bore. A few conspirators were taken into his secret, and the force of the government put in position to uphold his usurpation. The first overt act contemplated was to amend the constitution, under which the President could not be elected to a second term. Finding that he could not peaceably carry his point, he executed that great political crime known as the *Coup d' etat* of December 2, 1851. Arrests and assassinations were made with a ruthless hand, and before the country knew what was being done the republic had been strangled, and all the machinery of the government, civil and military, was employed to enforce conformity to the will of the usurper. Two weeks later the form of an election was invoked to give the semblance of popular sanction to what had been done. The people were not prepared to resist, and the "plebiscite," or election, passed off as the conspirators desired. The assumption of imperial authority thus had the appearance of popular approval. "The empire means peace," said the new emperor, and he was right for a long time.



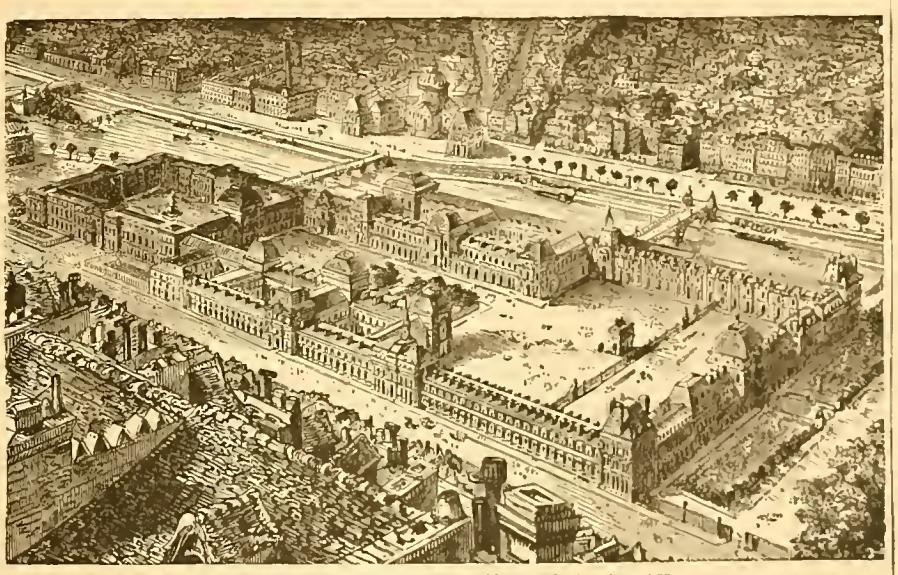
NAPOLEON III.

Louis Napoleon proved a man of great talent, if not absolute genius. His reign extended until the disasters of the Franco-Prussian war broke the spell of his power and revolutionized the government. Under him Paris was beautified as no other city ever was, and for the most part the people prospered. The government was respected at home and abroad. However severely his method of coming to the throne was condemned, his use of power seemed to be in the main good, and it was generally thought that the empire had been reestablished upon a firm basis. Louis Napoleon was admitted into the brotherhood of royalty, and was perhaps more influential for some fifteen years in the general affairs of Europe than any other member of that family. In the Crimean war the French bore a part commensurate with the importance of the nation. Later, the bayonets of France protected the Pope in his temporality. Whenever the Emperor wanted the sanction of a "plebiscite" he had it. His first notable failure was in trying to get England to unite with him in breaking the Southern blockade during the civil war in this country, and the kindred scheme to establish Maximilian of Austria as Emperor of Mexico. His hand in the former plot was not discovered at the time, but his part in the abortive usurpation in Mexico was known from the first. The success of the United States in crushing rebellion was a death-blow to Napoleon's intervention in

American affairs. He was chagrined and somewhat humiliated, but not seriously weakened thereby in his hold upon the French scepter.

To all appearances the empire was strong and sound when the war with Prussia began. Its real weakness was the utter corruption of the government. With a criminal at its head there was no soundness in the body itself. The empire was honeycombed by swindles of all sorts, and needed only the test of a great war to disclose its rottenness and overthrow its very foundations.

The Franco-Prussian War has been described sufficiently, except the siege of Paris, which was reserved for this connection. The Germans acted a subordinate part in the great drama of that siege. Within the limits of the beleagured city was going on the contest that gave especial significance to that episode of war. Practically the hostile environment was little else than a great opportunity for republicanism to arise from the tomb and throw off the cerements of death. The *Coup d'etat* had not killed it. The long sleep seemed to have been refreshing to the vigor of liberty. At first there was bewilderment. Dazed by the unaccustomed light of freedom, the Parisians were precipitated, at first, into a frenzied communism. All the horrors of the great revolution were revived. Leaders, maddened by long suppression and disasters in war, sprang to the front with the inauguration of another reign of terror. Some very worthy people were cruelly slaughtered. The outlook was gloomy in the extreme. Once more women of the humbler class rushed wildly about as if they were daughters of the three Furies. Petroleum was used as an agent of indiscriminate destruction. The Column Vendome was one of the more conspicuous objects of destructive frenzy.



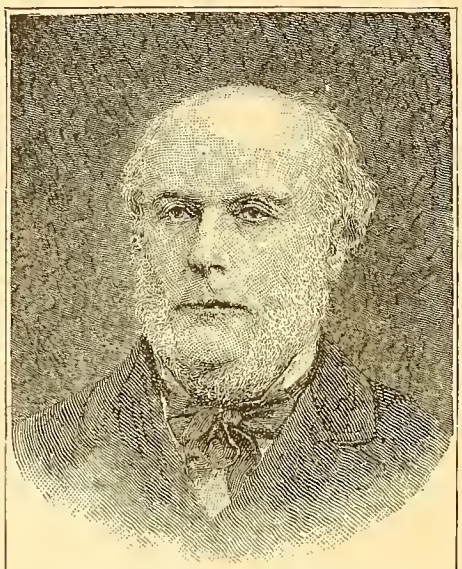
Palace of the Tuileries, the Residence of Napoleon III.

But that delirium of retribution was brief, and not without its benefits. It served to show the depth and intensity of the sentiment for liberty. Humiliating as was the defeat of the French army, the fall of the empire was ample compensation to the people, and in the darkest hours of the nation the hope of Republicanism shone as a star of the morning in the horizon of popular opinion.

Napoleon surrendered to the Prussians September 4, 1873, and the siege of Paris was complete on September 19th. It was on the seventh of the next month that Gambetta, the one great statesman of France, then Minister of the Interior, with authority to act as Minister of War, escaped from Paris in a balloon, and at once set about organizing an army of relief. He hoped to break the siege by attack from without. But he could not. In January following Paris was obliged to open its gates to the enemy and submit to such terms as the conquering Germans might dictate. Those terms were the surrender of Alsace and Lorraine and the payment of an indemnity of $1,000,000,000, the Germans to entirely evacuate the country only after all the money had been paid. It was submission to these hard terms and the removal of the Government from Paris to Versailles that especially fired the frenzy of the communists. It was a proud day for Kaiser William, who

as a youth had witnessed Napoleon's march through Berlin, after Jena, to ride in triumph through the streets of Paris. France was humiliated and impoverished, and the latest (and probably the last) of the Bonapartes was a fugitive, destined to linger only a few sad years in his retreat at Chisselhurst, England, from which his son and heir was to go forth, bearing a British commission, to fall a victim to Zulu savagery, leaving the ex-Empress Eugenie desolate. Retribution and revenge could ask no more.

It is needless to follow the fluctuations of French politics. The prudence and patriotism of the people triumphed. The republic found in M. Thiers, the first president, a stateman equal to the emergency. As long ago as the reign of Louis Philippe he had risen to eminence. An author and a politician, he was trusted by the nation, and he did not betray his trust. His successor, Marshal MacMahon, although in sympathy with the imperial party, remained true to his oath as President of the Republic. At first the respective partisans of the Bourbons, the Orleanists and the Bonapartists were hopeful, but as time wore on and the republic passed successfully through petty emergencies, the people settled down to the belief that the republic, no less than the empire, means peace, and that self-government is adapted to the French nation. When M. Grevy came to the Presidency all serious apprehensions of reaction disappeared. The crisis was really over.



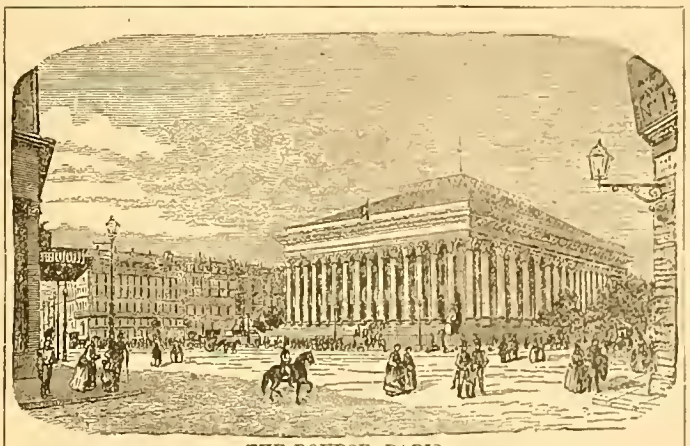
Jules Grevy—President of France, 1882.

The Republic of France is thoroughly centralized. The political divisions of the country are, 36 provinces, 86 departments, 362 arrondissements, 2,700 cantons and 36,000 communes. The commune corresponds to our city and town organizations. The maire, or mayor, is appointed by the national government, and is under the supervision of the prefect of a department. There is an under-prefect for each arrondissement. Cantons are divisions for elective, judicial and military convenience. The American and German respect for state rights is quite foreign to the French conception of politics. Paris and Lyons have some local self-government, but generally speaking, France is a thoroughly centralized republic.

Paris has an importance, as compared with the rest of the country, quite unknown to any other city on the globe. London is not England, New York is not the United States, nor Berlin Germany, to anything like the extent that Paris is France. In the great revolutions of the last century and in subsequent uprisings, the city took the lead and controlled events. The great names of France, whatever the department of thought and action, belong to Paris. Lyons can make silk, the vineyards of the rural districts slake thirst, and Havre harbors ships; but Paris is the focal point of all French genius, glory and achievements. All the railroads lead thither and all the aspirations of the people tend to its aggrandizement. So old that Cæsar rebuilt it, yet so new that it is the very flower of modern civilization, it is the most luxurious city on the globe.

The French may be set down as the most contented people of Europe. The emigration from there is almost none at all, except that the Basques of the department of the Haute-Pyrenees have, many of them, gone to South America to escape military proscription. The ordinary Frenchman prefers not only his native land, but his native commune. Eighty-five per cent. of the people are born, live and die in the same place. The real estate is divided among no less than 5,550,000 proprietors. No less than five millions of freeholders have less than six acres of land each. The public debt is also very widely distributed. In 1879 the total bonded debt of France was in francs 19,862,035,783, or nearly $4,000,000,000. The number of bondholders was 4,380,933, or, in rough numbers, one government

bondholder to every $1,000 of the public debt. The greater part of this debt draws three per cent. interest, one-third of it five per cent. The total annual revenue, or *rentes*, of the people from these bonds is 748,404,952 francs. There is no thought of paying the principal of this debt. It is held at home and constitutes a permanent and perfectly safe investment. Transactions in *rentes* and other securities are conducted on the Bourse.

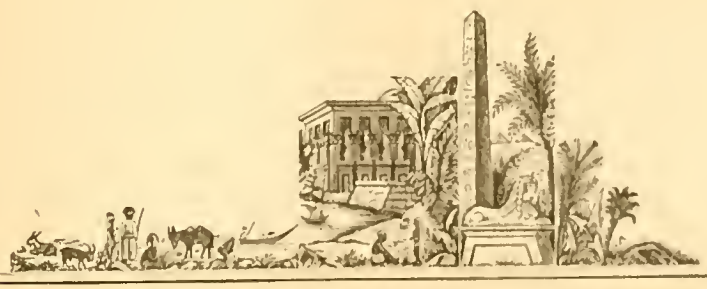


THE BOURSE, PARIS.

The population of France in 1880 was 37,166,000. The population of the provinces wrested from France by Germany as a part of the results of the Franco-German war may be set down at a million and a half. The number of the depositors in savings banks and holders of *rentes* numbered in 1879, 7,454,863. The people are economical, industrious and cheerful. The French masses are quite illiterate. Setting aside four millions of children under six years of age, and it may be said that thirty per cent. of the population can neither read nor write. Once Protestantism seemed likely to be the religion of the country, but by the latest census 98.02 per cent. of the people are Romanists, only 1.6 per cent. Protestants. All religions are equal before the law, except that state allowances for the clergy are confined to the Roman Catholics, Protestants and Jews.

The present colonial possessions of France are utterly insignificant. They contain a population of about two and a half millions, but with the exception of two thousand natives of France the colonists are barbarians, most of them downright savages. Slavery was abolished in all the colonies in 1848.

There have been some great authors in France since Voltaire, but none of those belonging to this century can claim the very highest rank except Victor Hugo. His *Les Miserables* may justly be set down as the greatest novel ever written. Its popularity was prodigious and its influence incalculable. Written for the purpose of showing that knowledge is the great reformatory agency in the world, it has a strength and vigor of thought almost Shakspearean. Dumas, father and son, deserve honorable mention, as does "George Sand" (Madam Dudevant), but their place in literature is not among the immortals. Taine and Louis Blanc must be accorded exalted praise as critics and that is all.



CELTIC, GOTHIC AND MOORISH SPAIN.

CHAPTER XLIX.

IBERIA AND THE FIRST AGE OF SPAIN—THE GOTHIC PERIOD—THEOLOGICAL ANIMOSITY—INVASION OF THE MOORS—THE MOORISH KINGDOM ESTABLISHED—THE LIGHT OF CORDOVA—ZARAH THE LUXURIOUS—THE MOORISH CIVILIZATION—ARREVOES AND THE RELIGIOUS REACTION—FALL OF CORDOVA AND RISE OF GRANADA—THE ALHAMBRA—THE GLORY AND SHAME OF SPAIN—THE FALL OF MALAGA—THE CONQUEST OF GRANADA.

THE present nation of Spain comprises, in its home territory, an area of 225,600 square miles. The term Spanish Peninsula, or The Peninsula, is used to designate both that country and Portugal. The latter did not have a separate existence until a comparatively late date, and the old name Iberia applies to the entire peninsula region. The first inhabitants, called Iberians, were Celts. The Phœnicians were the first to introduce civilization into the Peninsula. They established several trading posts along the coast. These were followed by several Greek colonies, and later still by Carthaginian settlements. During the second Punic Wars Spain was the base of operations for the Carthaginians under Hamilcar and Hannibal, the Romans under Scipio. After that it became a part of the Roman Empire. Then for the first time the leaven of civilization began to permeate the country. As a part of the great Roman Empire, Iberia produced many men of note. It was the birth-place of the Emperors Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus, Marcus Aurelius and Theodosius, also of the great moral philosopher Seneca, the poets Lucan and Martial and the accomplished rhetorician Quintilian. Very early and readily it accepted Christianity. It is thought by some that it was introduced by St. Paul himself.

When the Northern horde overran the Roman Empire the Iberian Peninsula was a peculiarly tempting field for spoliation. That was at the beginning of the fifth century. Three kingdoms were formed, the Gothic or Visigothic, the Suevic and the Vandalic. The Vandals were soon driven across the Mediterranean, and their present descendants are called Berbers. During the century the Suevic kingdom was absorbed. The new order of things which succeeded the Roman sway was Gothic. There were thirty-six kings of the latter line, none of them deserving especial mention. Toledo was the chief capital of Gothic Spain, but Cordova and Seville were flourishing cities. For a time the Gothic kingdom included France. It rose to its highest degree of splendor under Euric who fixed his capital at Arles, where he died in 485.

In the days of Gothic supremacy theological war was waged with the greatest fury. Euric was an Arian, as were the other earlier kings of his race, but the Franks were Athanasians. Finally, how-

ever the power of Rome was felt and the Arian faith was supplanted by the doctrine of the trinity which Western Europe denominates orthodox. The clergy acquired more power in Spain than anywhere else. The synods were petty parliaments and the bishops exercised judicial functions. The church could hardly have asked for more power than it enjoyed in Spain under the Goths. No meritorious literary works belong to the Gothic period. It was a season of barbarism and retrogression. Slavery existed in its worst forms and the land was one dreary waste of misery and crime, a vast moral and intellectual desert.

The chapter on the Saracen Empire served as an introduction to the period of Spanish history upon which we now enter. The Moors with their Crescent and "good Damascus blades," were invited to cross over and lend a helping hand to one of the factions in a civil war which was raging between the Goths over the crown, which was elective. When they got there they proposed to stay. Their leader, Gebal-Tarik, had all the heroism of the best days of Islam. Like Cortez at Vera Cruz, he burnt his ships, and thus compelled his soldiers to protect themselves by the scimetar against the Goths (for hardly had they come over before the factions united to drive them back). A three-days' battle was fought which resulted in the complete victory of the Moors. In a very short time the invaders had driven the Christians to the mountains and taken possession of all the fertile plains and prosperous cities of the Peninsula in the name of the Prophet. Gebal-Tarik was soon joined by Musa, the Governor of Northern Africa, as Emir, or representative of the Caliph at Damascus. During the Ommiad dynasty Spain remained a province of the Saracen Empire: but when that dynasty fell and there was division among the faithful as to the rightful leadership of Islam, it became independent, under the royal sway of a descendant of the old dynasty of the Ommiads.

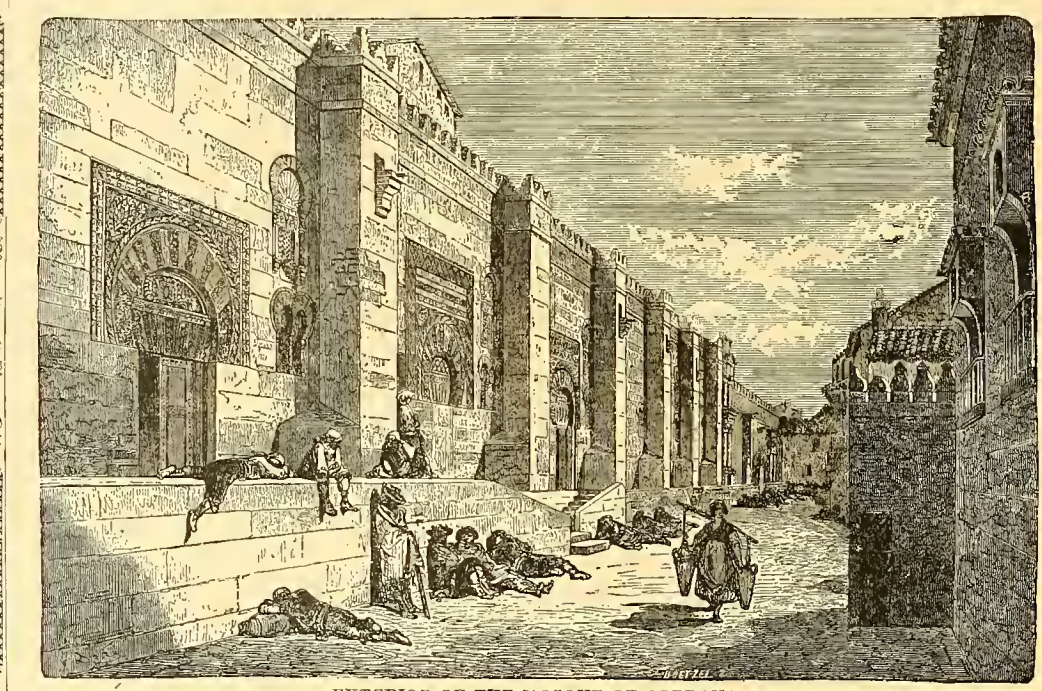
INTERIOR OF TOLEDO CATHEDRAL.

The Moors had crossed the Straits of Gibraltar in April, 711, and twenty-two years later Charles Martel won the great victory which saved Europe north of the Pyrenees from the invasion, and made that chain of mountains the boundary line, in the West, for some seven centuries, between the two religions of modern times. Twenty-two years later the kingdom, in distinction from the dependency, was established, with Cordova as the capital.

The first Moorish King of Spain was Abderahman, who reigned thirty years, and was a great soldier, a real statesman and a humane gentleman. The last was Abdallah the Unfortunate, sometimes called Boabdil. It was in the middle of the eighth century that the former came into his kingdom,

and almost the close of the fifteenth century when the latter withdrew from his, and the Moorish invasion of Spain was at an end for ever. During that long period there was almost constant war between the Moslems and the Christians, and these different religionists were at war among each other. Indeed, the Moors were fatally weakened by internal dissensions, rather than by the hostility of the Cross and the Crescent.

middle of the ninth century. He encouraged all the arts of industry. The poor found profitable employment, especially in building and adorning the capital, constructing roads and bridges, planting vineyards and raising grain. Men of distinction were invited to the court without regard to race or religion. To him succeeded a series of kings who were kept busy in trying to suppress insurrections and maintain what had been be-



EXTERIOR OF THE MOSQUE OF CORDOVA.

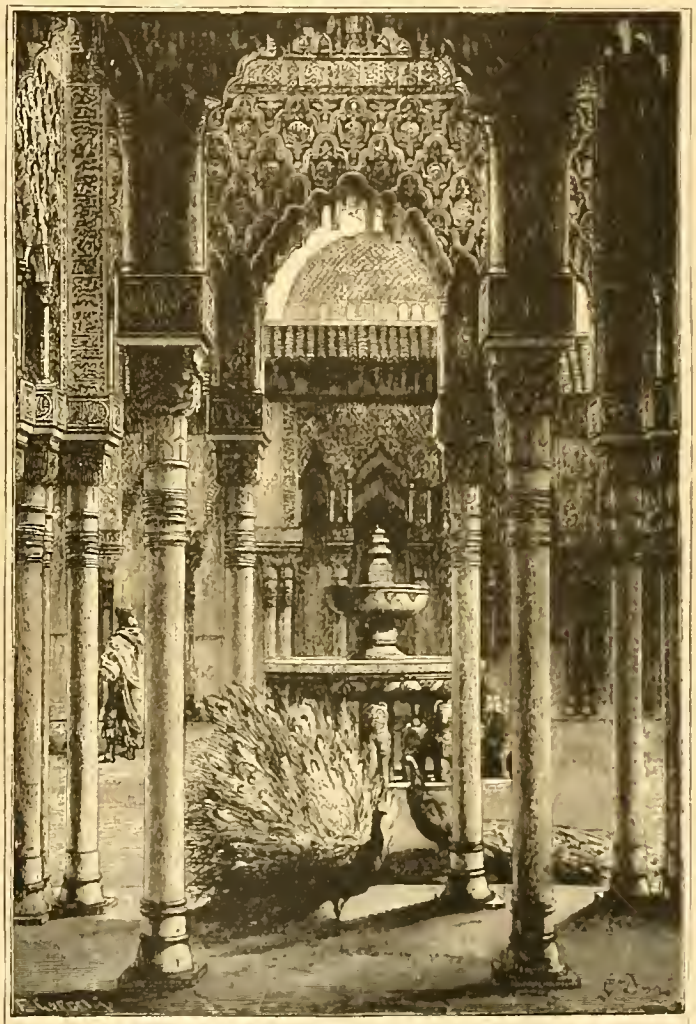
The question of final supremacy rested not so much on which church was the stronger as which was least rent and torn by its own rivalries, hates and ambitions.

It was in Spain that the civilization of the Saracens attained its most glorious results. The best blood of Arabia and all the Moslem lands flowed thither and built up a nation of brave soldiers, erudite scholars and skilled artisans. Cordova was long the seat of empire. The Christians were driven back and only allowed to establish themselves in the province of Asturias, about the Bay of Biscay. The second king to reflect honor upon the throne at Cordova was Abderahman II., who flourished in the

queathed to them. In 912 another Abderahman, in name and character, came to the throne, under whom the kingdom was harmonious, but against whom a very formidable Christian army marched. Under Ramiro II. the two armies met near Salamanca and a terrible battle ensued. The Christians were greatly discouraged if not utterly defeated, while the Moors were left in undisputed possession of their magnificent and fertile possessions. This king added greatly to the glory of Cordova.

The city of Zarah, named after his favorite wife, was built as a suburb of Cordova, and if we may give any credit to Moorish chronicles, it was the most luxurious city of palatial residences ever

reared upon this earth. Built at the base of a mountain, it enjoyed a delightful climate almost uninterruptedly. It was profusely supplied with fountains, gardens, parks and boulevards. The houses were built on one model and surrounded by gardens, terraces and every conceivable appliance of luxury. The central beauty of Zarah was a palace with a roof supported by four thousand pillars of variegated marble, including not only sombre shafts from Egypt, and white shafts from Italy, but stately malachite from Russia, procured through the commerce of "Novgorod the Good." The floors and walls were of the same material, all polished to the highest degree. Gold, burnished steel and precious jewels embellished the ceiling. It was luxury carried to the loftiest heights.



THE ALHAMBRA (The Court of Lions).

But the chief glory of Cordova and its suburb was not architectural or material in any sense. Poetry, history, the exact sciences, geography, chemistry, medicine, inventions, discoveries, and all that go to the composition of culture, found its natural center there. The value of the literature developed cannot be measured with any degree of accuracy, for the vandalism of the Christians who finally expelled the Moors, spared nothing. Whatever was written in Arabic characters was assumed to be the Koran, and doomed to the flames. The palaces were torn down, the gardens desolated, and the real treasures of the city destroyed. But much which made the Renaissance possible and beneficent may be traced to Cordova. Not that the Moors in Spain, any more than the Saracens generally, were actual creators of a distinctive civilization, but that they found, conserved, and to some extent fused, the civilizations of Greece and India. They were apt scholars and faithful transmitters.

The most illustrious name in Cordova's crown of glory is Averroes, a ripe scholar and profound philosopher. He was what would be called an agnostic in our day, too broad and liberal to be tolerated even in tolerant Cordova. His philosophy seems to have opened the eyes of the devout believers in the Prophet to the danger of religion from science. He was persecuted as a heretic. His genius was the glory of the twelfth century, and his persecution was the triumph of the Koran over free thought and scientific inquiry, the turning-point, in fact, of the Moslem. Had his spirit of progress prevailed, the regeneration of Europe by the Moors would have been probable; but orthodoxy triumphed, and the country was held within the narrow limits of a book having no scientific virtue, and Averroeism was obliged to await encouragement and development in Christian lands ages later. The Moors in Spain, like the Saracens in the East, marched nobly and

swiftly to the very door of modern civilization, but only to pause upon the threshold and draw back forever. No second Averroes came to lead the Moslem intellect out of bondage to a Book.

In the year 1234 the Christians took Cordova, the Moors no longer being succored by their brethren in Africa, nor able by themselves to withstand the assaults of their enemies. Granada then became the capital of the Moslem power in Spain, and so continued to be to the end. There the Mohammedans rallied and maintained themselves for two centuries and a half. A recent writer, speaking of the kingdom of Granada, says, "Its fertile valleys embraced the garden of the Peninsula; its industrious population carried agriculture to a degree of perfection unknown to modern times; its mountains yielded great quantities of the precious metals; its manufactures of silk and porcelain found a ready market in the courts of semi-barbaric Europe; the commerce of Alcmena and Malaga, its principal seaports, extended to the Indies," and he might have added, to every port of trade. Within that successor of Cordova, Granada, gathered a population of a half a million people, not all Mohammedans either. Jews and Christians were made welcome. If Granada could not boast the Mosque of Cordova, the Giralda of Seville, or the palace of Zarah, its Alhambra was even a more wonderful triumph of architecture than any of these. Its foundation is ascribed to Mohammed I., who died in 1273. It was a group of buildings with their surroundings, rather than one edifice, with the royal residence as its center. It was peculiarly Saracenic in this, that it combined the characteristic merits of every kind of known architecture, Roman, Babylonian, Phœnician, Persian, Greek and Egyptian. It was not only a royal residence and seat of government, but it was also a home of learning and intelligence. The barbarism of Christian Spain has wholly destroyed much and greatly defaced all, but enough remains to testify that the Alhambra was one of the marvels of the world, and its destruction a vast public crime.

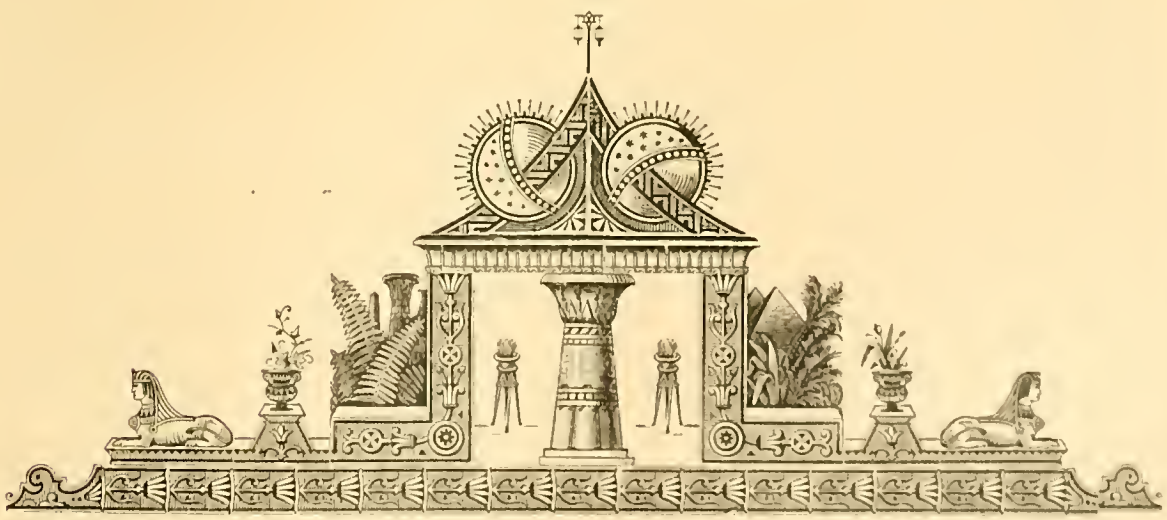
THE CATHEDRAL AND PORT OF MALAGA.

As in Condova, so in Granada, dissensions made conquest possible. The territory of Islam was gradually narrowed by Christian encroachments. New states of considerable power arose. Portugal came into existence in 1145; Navarre extended

both North and South of the Pyrenees, and stronger than either were Castile and Aragon, especially the former. The two latter were united when Ferdinand, King of Aragon, married Isabella, Queen of Castile. Each reigned in his or her own right, but being happy in their marital relations, they formed one sovereignty. Together they set about overthrowing the Moorish Kingdom, and they were successful. The glories of Columbus are thus blended, in a sense, with the shame of Boabdil, the honor of discovering a new world with the reproach of quenching the brightest light in the old world.

The first campaign of destruction was directed against Malaga. That Liverpool of its day fell in 1487. The people were sold into slavery or parceled out among the victors as prizes of war in the most barbaric manner. The more beautiful females were sent, in large numbers, to Rome, Paris and other centers of power, as gifts, in accordance with the monstrous conception then common of international comity. The captured city was repeopled with Christian Spaniards, and the conquerors were encouraged to plot further spoliation and slaughter, robbery and outrage.

In the spring of 1491 Ferdinand raised a powerful army and encamped with his host within a few miles of the battlements of Granada, determined to complete the work of conquest. Abdallah, or Boabdil, the king of the Spanish Moors, was in personal command at Granada. The city was well adapted to defensive warfare; but even in the presence of impending ruin there was dissension, and to that cause, hardly less than to the prowess of the besiegers, the beleagured city owed its fall, for fall it did. On the second day of the year 1492 it was obliged to capitulate. The soldiers of the Cross took possession of the Alhambra in the name of Christ, and the vanquished king withdrew with his people to a small mountainous territory in the midst of the Alpuxarrus Mountains, where he was allowed for a short time to rule as governor, and vassal of the Christian monarch. But the Moors were unequal to the task of building a third kingdom upon Spanish soil. Not long after, Boabdil crossed the straits of Gibraltar and was lost among the Moors of Africa. With him did not, however, disappear the Arab from Europe. There lingered much of the old stock, but as a separate and puissant political power the Moor ceased to exist in Europe with the fall of Granada.



FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

CHAPTER L.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL—THE MOORS AND MORISCOES—PERSECUTION OF THE JEWS—THE INQUISITION AND AUTO-DA-FE—XIMENES AND TORQUEMADA—BIRTH AND EARLY EXPERIENCES OF CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS—THE GREAT DISCOVERY—SUBSEQUENT CAREER OF THE GREAT DISCOVERER—INDIAN AND AFRICAN SLAVERY—LAST DAYS OF FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

THE marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella (1469) was the union of two loving and ever faithful hearts. For thirty years they lived together in harmony, and in their marital relations were models of domestic virtue and grace. Never was there a better illustration of the adage, "In union is strength." The fall of Granada was the first great result of their cooperative energy. Castile and Aragon were then and throughout in practical unity, and out of that unity grew modern Spain. Neither kingdom lost its individuality at once, but the conquest of a splendid country like Granada by their united effort rendered any separation of interest impracticable. A new name was only a question of time. Before a common heir to both Castile and Aragon came to the throne, other important additions of area were made, and it required only a matrimonial alliance with Portugal to prepare the way for the complete unification of the Peninsula under one throne. Ferdinand and Isabella made the necessary provision for such a consummation by the marriage of their daughter with the heir of Portugal, and their son with a daughter of the King of Portugal. But in both cases death prevented the success of the plan, and instead of uniting all Iberia, the country became two kingdoms as now, Spain and Portugal.

FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

In the fall of Granada, Castile and Aragon had no assistance of moment, but all Europe was delighted. Christendom felt that the overthrow of the Saracens in Spain was an offset for failure in the Crusades, and for encroachments upon the Greek Church on the Bosphorus and along the Danube. Only one thing marred the satisfaction of the pious, and that was that the treaty of Granada guaranteed to the Moors the free enjoyment of their religion. Under that arrangement many thousands of Mos-

lems remained in the land, worshiping God according to the Koran. But the perfidy of ecclesiastical counselors was equal to the emergency. A synod of bishops and other dignitaries of the church decided to "solicit" the conversion of the Mohammedans by ordering those who did not embrace the Christian religion to leave the country, taking with them neither gold nor silver. Confiscation and banishment, practically, were the penalty of fidelity to Islam. And this policy was rigorously carried out. A great many accepted Christianity, receiving baptism and abstaining from every form of Moslem worship. To recant in any way was sure death. Those who were thus converted became known as Moriscoes. The more liberal and educated class cared little for their religion. Those who clung to the old faith of Mecca were obliged to cross the Mediterranean. Some of them settled along the northern border of Africa, but many pushed boldly southward and established their seats of learning and other institutions in Soudan. The Crescent owes much of its present power among the Africans of the interior to the banished Moors of Spain. But their civilization succumbed to the adverse pressure of a tropical climate, and long since lost its vitality. It should be added that not a few of the more heroic Moors were either burnt at the stake or sold into slavery by Ferdinand and Isabella in their terrible and relentless policy of extirpation. Not content with such perfidy, Ferdinand, near the close of his reign, sent an army over into Africa to plunder the Moors by wasting their country and committing every species of outrage.

CARDINAL XIMENES.

Black and infamous as is the record of Spain's treatment of the Moors at this time, it is not so utterly detestable as the record of Jewish persecution. The Moors were looked upon as intruders and enemies of the country; the Jews were an integral, loyal and useful part of the native population. They had been in the country many centuries, for the most part, and were in all respects homogeneous, except that in the one matter of religion they remained true to their ancestral faith. The spirit of persecution was stimulated by the fall of Granada, and in the same year an edict was issued requiring those Jews who would not recant to leave the country, taking neither gold nor silver with them. The decree was issued in March to go into effect in July. Very few of the people recanted, and they were hunted down pitilessly. Vast numbers perished, and those who escaped suffered terribly. Some laid down to die on the sands of Africa; others perished of disease contracted in overcrowded ships in which they took passage for other parts of Europe. At that time the new continent had not been discovered, and nowhere was there a welcome retreat for these distressed people. They had enjoyed liberty under the Moors, and acquired large landed estates. Granada was the medieval paradise of the Hebrews. To be uprooted and desolated without cause, and contrary to treaty obligations, was one of the greatest crimes of history. There were probably half a million Jews in Spain at that time. They were hunted down like wild beasts, and even the King of Portugal was not allowed to harbor them.

The great instrument of this destruction of two peoples, the Moors and the Jews, was the Inquisition. It had existed for some time in a languid way, but the austere Ferdinand and his pious wife were persuaded that it was their religious duty to ply that agency of conversion unsparingly. The belief of the time was that submission to the rite of baptism was salvation from hell, and that heresy, of whatever kind or degree, was the worst form of crime. The church had always been exceptionally influential in Spain, but now it was absolute, and the Inquisition ("bed of justice") was the supreme tribunal, and the lurid fire of the *auto-da-fé* made hideous the whole sky of Spain. France had her Massacre of St. Bartholomew, but that was a gentle shower as compared with the flood which deluged Spain with blood during the joint reign of these two conscientious sovereigns. Under their sway the country was so completely subjugated to the will of

Romish priests that had it not been for other possessions in Holland their persecuting descendants would have been denied the grim privilege of persecution. Absolutely no mercy was ever shown to any form of heresy in Spain, and never was a work of destruction more thorough or cruel.

In this policy two ecclesiastics, as well as two sovereigns, were conspicuous, Torquemada the Inquisitor, and Cardinal Ximenes, the Richelieu of Spain. The former had been the confessor of Isabella, and had unlimited influence over her. With no thought but to extirpate heretics he spent his life in the service of the Inquisition. Ximenes was a statesman of extraordinary ability and thorough devotion to the church. He sought to make the church and state one, and both invincible. He was unscrupulous, crafty and heartless. Many stories were told by ecclesiastical writers of the personal goodness of these two men, some of which have found their way into received history; but the needless outrages which Ximenes encouraged and the wealth which he accumulated stamp him as a monster of wickedness, while Torquemada was more bigoted if possible than the cardinal, but unstained with avarice. Together they crushed and destroyed not only free thought but learning and progress. Henceforth, notwithstanding the glories of the New World, Spain declined in character and intelligence.

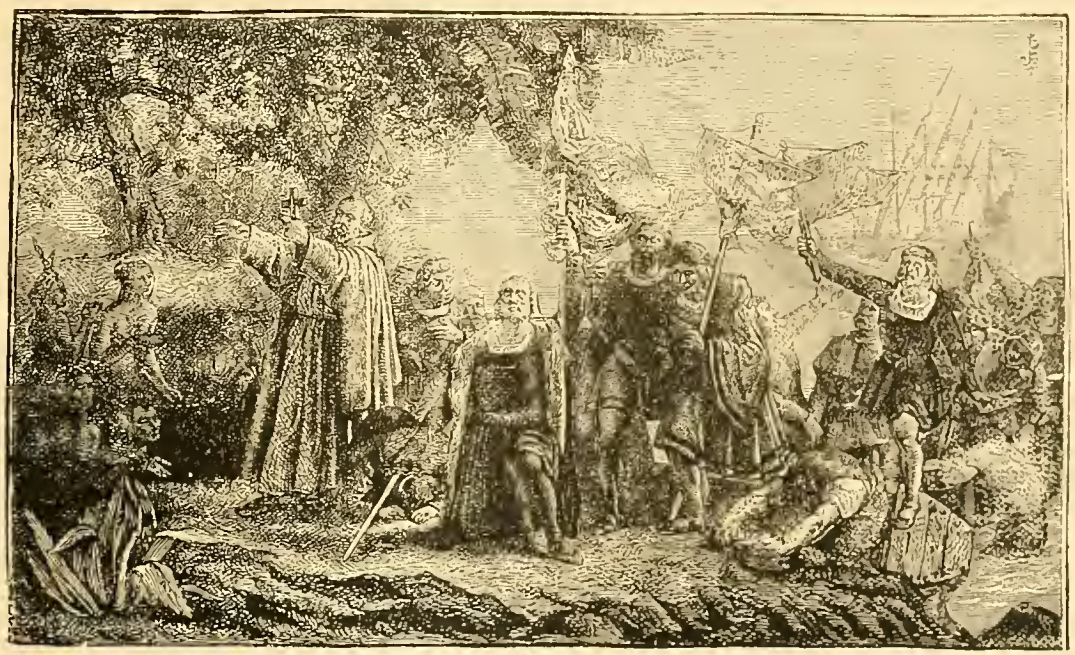
COLUMBUS EXPLAINING HIS VOYAGE.

The same year that Granada fell and the Jews were robbed and banished, America was discovered, and all under substantially the same impulse. If neither Torquemada nor Ximenes may claim the credit of inducing Isabella to enter upon the enterprise of discovery (for to her rather than to her husband was Columbus indebted) it was none the less due to priestly intervention. It was the great navigator's good fortune to enlist the support of a former confessor of the queen, and the influence of that ecclesiastic was decisive. Thus the same underlying motive explains both the shame and the glory of Spain.

The story of Columbus is peculiarly interesting. A recent writer of much erudition has taken pains to show from official documents that Christopher Columbus was anything but an admirable man in character, and that his ill-fortune, late in life, was due to his own misconduct; but so vast is the debt of the world to him that the mantle of oblivion may well be thrown over all that. He deserves to be held in grateful and tender memory. His story may be briefly told. Born in Geneva in 1435, the son of a wool-comber, at fourteen he became a sailor. His native city was then an important but declining mart of maritime trade. About the age of 35 he made Lisbon, Portugal, his home, and map-making his business. That was the golden age of Portugal. King John was the most enterprising monarch in Europe, and he encouraged navigation on a liberal scale. The ships of Lisbon skirted the African coast along the Atlantic and penetrated as far as the Azores islands, continually adding to geographical and maritime

COLUMBUS.

knowledge. Map making was thus a progressive science, no less than a trade. The roundness of the world had been philosophically established, the mariner's compass discovered, and the way prepared for the circumnavigation of the world; but no one seemed to have conceived the idea of trying to reach the farthest east by sailing directly west, until that idea took possession of the mind of Columbus. He spent several years in trying to secure the funds by royal patronage for his voyage. He was repeatedly refused and rebuffed and almost discouraged.



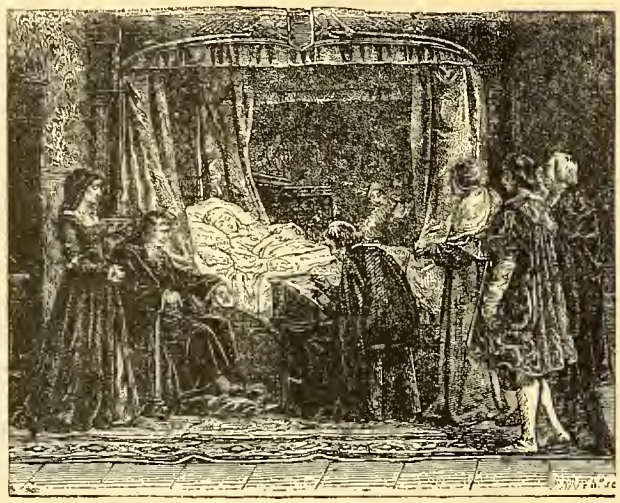
LANDING OF COLUMBUS IN THE NEW WORLD—AFTER A PAINTING BY PUEBLA.

The argument which he used was that by a short cut to India immense treasures would be secured, the gospel of Christ extended, and the revenue derived be sufficient to equip another crusade against the Moslem. That was an age of superstition and avarice, and he held out the inducements most likely to be influential. A wealthy Spaniard, Alonzo Pinzon, offered to defray one-eighth of the expense, and the Queen undertook the fitting out of three vessels for the expedition, pledging, says the narrative, her personal jewels. This, however, is quite improbable, for Granada had just fallen, and its plunder had enriched the coffers of both Castile and Aragon.

This most memorable of all expeditions sailed from Palos October 12, 1492. It was with the utmost difficulty, toward the last, that Columbus could keep his sailors from turning back, but finally, on the 12th of December, land was discovered and reached. He had found the island of San Salvador. The natives received the voyagers with open arms of friendship. They cruised about some days, discovering several islands, including Hayti, or San Domingo, and Cuba. Supposing he had reached the land for which he had sailed, he called the natives Indians, a misnomer which has clung to them ever since, and given to the islands discovered the name of West Indies. He returned with many specimens of the country, including several of the Aborigines. Among the products found and introduced into Europe were potatoes, tobacco and Indian corn. His return was hailed as a great event all over Europe. In Spain he was honored by the people and the sovereigns as befitted his supreme achievement.

A second expedition soon set sail for the new world, indulging the most extravagant anticipations. Everybody was wild with golden expectations. But very little was found to meet the views of the

adventurers. After coasting along the east shore of South America, finding neither a passage to India, nor gold and silver mines, many returned home in disgust and others remained sullen with discontent. A reaction set in, and Columbus was superseded in command of the colony established in Cuba by Bobadilla, who ordered the Admiral home in chains. That injustice created a feeling in his favor, and he was sent back the third time as governor of the colony. That was in 1501. In the meanwhile the Spaniards in the new world had enslaved the natives, and under pretext of converting them to Christianity, were subjecting them to extirpating cruelties. The natives of those once happy islands were early annihilated by their inhuman task-masters, and their places supplied by importations of Negroes. If Columbus was not responsible for slavery he did nothing to prevent or ameliorate it. In conception of justice he was not in advance of his age. Not only was the enslavement of two races introduced in America in his time, but the use of bloodhounds in chasing the fugitive slaves. Half a century saw the native population swept from those islands by the atrocity of the Spaniards.



ISABELLA DICTATING HER WILL.

Disappointed in his search for gold, and saddened by the results of his genius, Columbus returned to Spain, and in the year 1506 he died, poor, heart-broken and neglected. After his death he was restored to popular favor, and his remains removed to Hayti for interment. In 1795 the bones of the great discoverer were removed to their present interment, the Cathedral of Havana, Cuba. It was not until about the time of his death that the Spanish dream of gold and silver was realized.

The principal events of the eventful joint rule of Ferdinand and Isabella have now been narrated. The Queen died in the odor of sanctity November 26, 1504, in the forty-fourth year of her age and the thirtieth of her reign. Of her children there remained only one daughter, Joanna, and she was insane. Joanna's son Charles, afterwards illustrious as Charles V., was the heir of Castile and Aragon, on his mother's side; and on the side of his father, Philip, son of Maximilian of Germany, also heir of the Netherlands, and he was, as it proved, heir also of the German Empire. Ferdinand survived Isabella a few years, marrying the niece of the King of France. His last years were uneventful, and may well be passed over. His life-work was completed when the woman who was really his "better-half" passed away. He lagged superfluous until January 22, 1516, when he too passed away.

CATHOLIC SPAIN.

CHAPTER LI.

ISABELLA'S CHARACTER AND DEATH—SPANISH UNION—PHILIP AND JUANA—CHARACTER OF FERDINAND—CHARLES V.—PHILIP THE CATHOLIC—MARRIAGE WITH "BLOODY MARY"—THE "INVINCIBLE ARMADA"—THE ESCURIAL—PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH CROWNS—PHILIP THE IMBECILE—THE MORISCOES AND SPAIN—PHILIP IV. AND SPAIN—THE LAST OF THE HAPSBURGS—FIRST OF THE BOURBONS—CONTINUED DECLINE—LOSS OF TERRITORY—NAPOLEON AND SPAIN—JOSEPH BONAPARTE—THE BOURBONS RESTORED—LOUIS PHILIPPE'S TRICK AND WHAT CAME OF IT—"THE APOSTOLIC JUNTA AND CARLISM"—CHARLES, KARL AND CARLOS—FERDINAND VII. AND QUEEN REGENT MARIA CHRISTINA—ISABELLA II.—PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT—THE REPUBLICAN EXPERIMENT AND CASTELAR—AMADEUS I. AND MARSHAL PRIM—ANOTHER INTERREGNUM—BOURBONS AGAIN RESTORED—ALFONSO AND THE PRESENT GOVERNMENT—SPANISH ART AND LITERATURE, MURILLO, THE CID, CALDERON, CERVANTES, DON QUIXOTE AND THE NATIONAL BALLADS.

THE personal virtues of Isabella, and the service she rendered the world as the patron of Christopher Columbus will evermore enshrine her name in the affections of mankind. Pure in heart and free from guile, she no doubt maintained "a conscience void of offense." She was, however, very far from being a model ruler. The policy of the government toward Moors, Jews and heretics was cruel and unjust. She herself was the victim of superstition, and so far misconceived the sphere of civil authority as to devote herself largely to the regulation of the religious affairs of her subjects by means of persecution. But all which she did or sanctioned in that line seems trivial in comparison with what followed. She was justly styled the Catholic Queen, but it was not until after her death that Catholic Spain, in the most pronounced sense of the term, came into view and held its ground as the supreme political expression of the Roman Catholic church.

We have used the name Spain from the first and treated the country as if it were one; but in point of fact, as the reader has observed, there were several states, each independent of the other, Castile being the most powerful and Aragon second. Ferdinand and Isabella never merged their kingdoms, but their personal union proved in effect the marriage of States. It may be said that when Ferdinand followed his consort to the grave their two kingdoms, with their accessories, were merged into one nation.

Ferdinand and Isabella had been unfortunate in their children. Several died young, and when the illustrious queen died her only heir was Juana, wife of Philip, Archduke of Austria, son and heir of Maximilian I., Emperor of Germany. By her will, executed October 12, 1504, Isabella bestowed the crown of Castile upon Juana as "Queen Proprietor" and her husband. By the Concord of Sala-

manca, a year later, it was arranged that Castile should be governed jointly by Ferdinand, Philip and Juana. Philip and his wife were in the Netherlands at the time. The year following they returned to Spain, and it was very soon evident that this tripartite agreement would lead to very serious trouble. But before the year closed Philip died suddenly. His poor wife was crazed by her bereavement, never recovering her reason. She lingered many years, a melancholy lunatic. There was no room for dissension. All conceded to Ferdinand the sovereignty of the whole country. He held it until 1516, when death claimed him. By his will he left the kingdom to the young son of poor Juana, known in history as Charles V., with Cardinal Ximenes as ruler of Castile until Charles should come into his kingdom, and Ferdinand's natural son, the Archbishop of Saragossa, in charge of Aragon during the same period. Ximenes was a great statesman, a brave soldier and a learned divine, a man of great power. He founded the university of Alcala and translated the Bible. Of Ferdinand and his rule Harrison gives this testimony:

"Ferdinand was a bigot; he was not free from the taint of perfidy tossed to and fro so freely in that age; he was parsimonious, subtle and insincere; he utterly lacked geniality, and never threw off the gravity which he thought becoming the Spanish grandee; he indulged in vicious gallantries in egotistic designs, in an ill-assorted second marriage; he was suspicious, vulgar and uneducated; all this one is willing to grant, and yet concede that there were elements of true grandeur in his character. In the judgment of many of his contemporaries, he was the most renowned and glorious monarch in Christendom. Impartial, economical, indefatigable in his application to business, he was neither an epicure nor ostentatious; he loved history, horsemanship, the rites and ritual of a splendid church ceremonial, knightly virtues and chivalrous undertakings; and with unusual control over his temper, undaunted personal courage, and a far-seeing political sagacity, he made few bad mistakes, and, by wonderful good fortune, raised Spain, jointly with his magnanimous queen, from a conglomeration of reciprocally hostile states into a spacious and concentrated European empire."

Charles V. was sixteen years of age when his grandfather died. Little more than a year later he assumed the reins of government, and the year next following he was elected Emperor of Germany. No monarch had ever swayed so vast an empire. Beside the splendid kingdom of Spain, including quite a large part of Italy, and the august empire of Germany, were his vast American possessions, already growing into enormous importance.

CHARLES V.

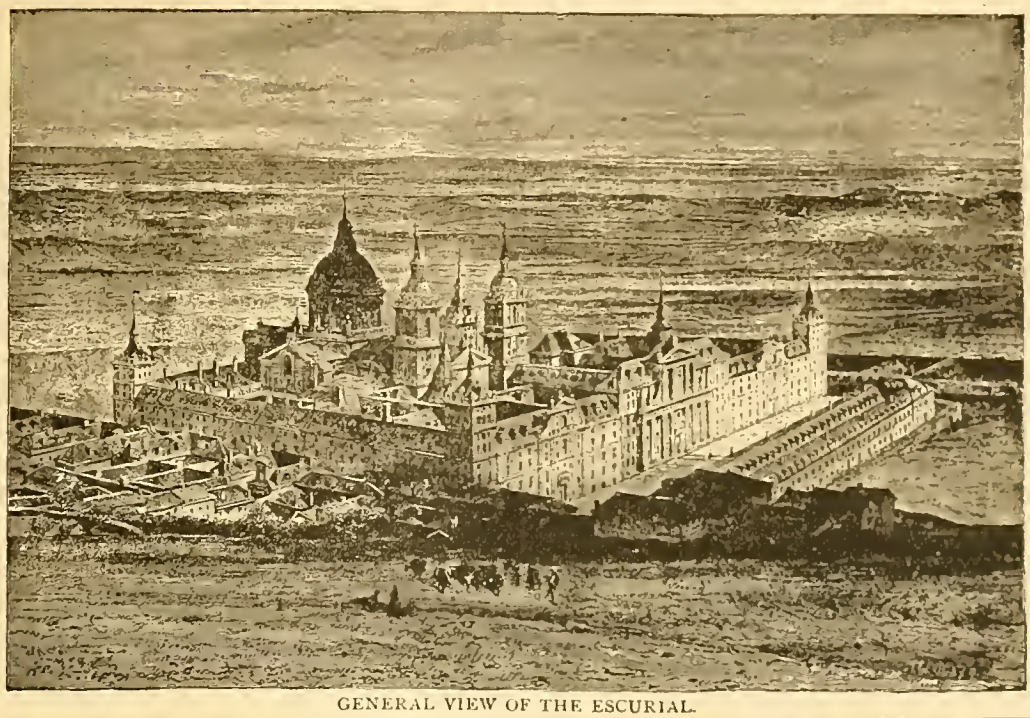
His reign extended from 1516 in Spain and 1519 in Germany until 1555, when he voluntarily abdicated in favor of his son Philip II., known fitly as Philip the Catholic, retiring himself to a monastery to prepare for death.

Subsequent chapters will narrate the founding of American colonies, some of them imperial. In a general way it may be said that his reign witnessed nearly all the settlements which grew into that chain of republics extending from the United States to Patagonia. In 1526 he was married to Isabella of Portugal, a union which ultimately brought the entire Spanish peninsula under one scepter for a time. The death of Charles V. occurred September 21, 1558, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. His last act was the execution of a codicil to his will in which he solemnly and quite superfluously enjoined it upon Philip to "exterminate every heretic in his dominions and cherish the Inquisition."

Fortunately for Germany, Philip II. never wore the elective imperial crown; but his hereditary and inalienable sovereignties raised him to the supreme rank among the kings of Europe.

Queen Catherine, the divorced wife of Henry VIII. of England, was the sister of Charles, and Philip married for his first wife the daughter of Henry and Catherine, Mary, known in English annals as Bloody Mary. On her part it was a love match,

but not so on his side. She was several years the senior of her profligate and bigoted husband. From the first he hated Protestantism with more intensity than he loved pleasure, and herein there was a bond of sympathy between them; but to reside on English soil and be enveloped in the fog of an uncongenial court was intolerable to him. He remained briefly with his unloved royal wife, only that he might undo what her father and her brother, Edward IV., had sought to do. The papacy was restored, temporarily. When the retrogressive work seemed to be accomplished, Philip left his wife in her own dominions, crossing the channel, never to set foot again on English soil. His unhappy wife had no charms for him, and her importunities for his return made no impression upon his obdurate heart.



GENERAL VIEW OF THE ESCURIAL.

Hardly had the sad queen been borne to her last home, before the serpentine Philip began to make overtures of marriage to her sister and successor, Elizabeth. But she was not to be wooed and won by any suitor, least of all by a man she loathed and a sovereign she distrusted. She was a staunch Protestant. Failing to win by courtship, Philip changed his tactics and tried to gain England by conquest. A vast navy, or Armada, was fitted out for the purpose. An auspicious storm, supplemented by British bravery, destroyed the Armada and saved England. That was a great crisis in the affairs of England. The "Invincible Armada" consisted of 140 ships. It set sail in May, 1588. Eighty-one of the vessels were sunk. The fate of the Armada was, in some important respects, to the modern world what the battle of Salamis was to the ancient world, England, small and despised, was able to hold in check the vast and unwieldy forces of Spain, and as the success of Xerxes and his Persians over the Greeks would have changed the current of ancient civilization, so the success of Philip and his Castilians would have changed the whole trend and character of modern civilization.

The first four years of Philip's reign, to resume the thread of continental history, were employed in establishing his authority in Italy. Devout papist though he was, he forced the pope himself to sue for mercy. But nearly all his energies were expended in carrying out his father's codicil, and His Holiness freely and fully forgave him all his Italian

transgressions. The long reign of Philip II. extended into the year 1598. In Spain, the only part of his kingdom in which he really felt at home, Protestantism had no lodgment, but in the Netherlands it was very strong. The political privileges of his Dutch subjects were at one time confirmed, but with unflinching pertinacity he strove to crush heresy. That terrible war belongs, for the most part, to a previous chapter. In 1579 a union of the seven Protestant provinces of the Netherlands against Philip was formed, with William of Nassau and Orange at its head. It was not until 1648 that Spain recognized the independence of the Dutch Republic. Philip died with that horrible war still in progress. His long and detestable life was unrelieved by a single ray of nobility. As a husband he was faithless, as a father a murderer, his son and heir, Don Carlos, being the victim of his inhumanity. The policy he adopted drained the wealth of Mexico and Peru to maintain wars instigated by superstition, and thus, instead of allowing Spain to profit by the influx of precious metals from the new world he used the matchless resources of his crown to destroy, impoverish and depopulate the lands over which he ruled.

The Escurial, built by this monarch, was at once his palace and his tomb. Its somber walls stand as a monument of the most calamitous reign in all history. A somewhat too gushing, but in this instance excusably picturesque, historian says of this architectural marvel:

"A mausoleum, a monastery, a palace, a church, a museum, a marvelous reliquary, where the bones and limbs of hundreds of saints were devoutly accumulated; a city of corridors, doors, windows, and apartments; a great library, a gigantic picture-gallery, a network of tanks and towers, a confession-stool for princely humility, a village of Hieronymite monks, a town clinging to the sides of the mountain-wilderness of the Guadarramas, a swarming cloister, an austere hermitage, a fortress,—what was not this wonderful edifice, begun by Juan Baptista de Toledo in 1563, and occupying 30 years of Philip's life before it was finished?"

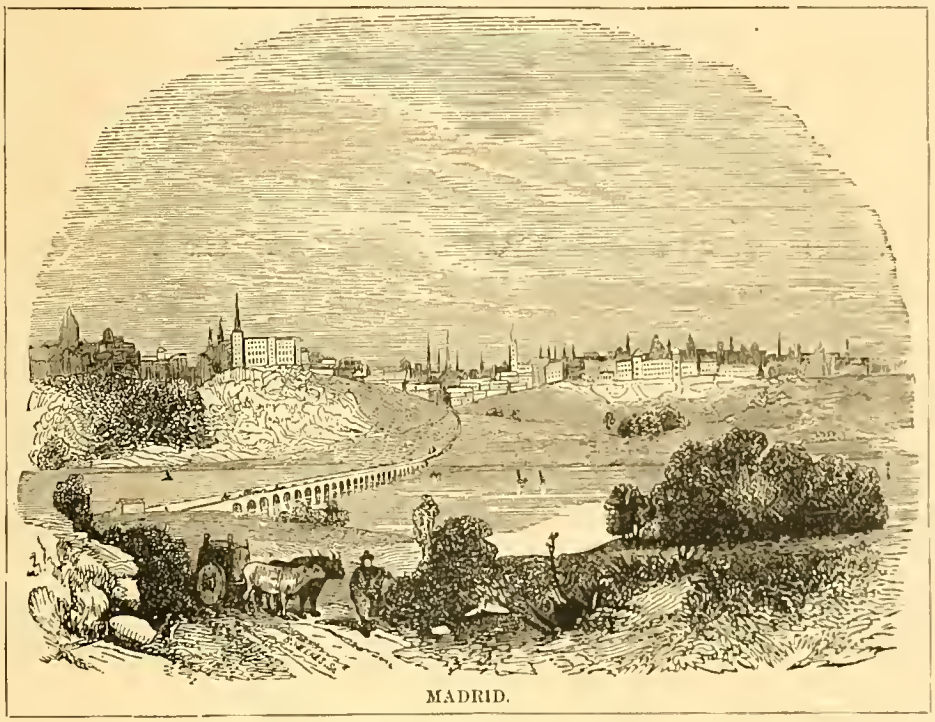
It was in the year 1563 that Philip II. made Madrid the permanent capital of Spain, which it has remained ever since. In 1581 Philip received homage at Lisbon as King of Portugal, intending to make Madrid the central city of the entire peninsula. Henry, the cardinal and king of that country, had died the year before, and under some color of right Philip demanded the crown. His demand was not conceded until a Spanish army had desolated the land.

The successor of Philip II. was the imbecile Philip III., who had all his father's vices without his ability. A weak tool of priests, he was simply clay in the hands of the ecclesiastical potters. The chief feature of his reign was the demand of the clergy for the slaughter of the Moriscoes or Moors who still remained in the country and professed compliance with the religious requirements of the laws. During the reign of Philip II. they had been cruelly persecuted, but it was reserved for the son to finish the work. They numbered about one million souls and constituted the better portion of the population. They were the intelligent husbandmen, skillful artisans and learned scholars of Spain. Under their influence and fostering care the industries, arts and manufactures of the land had maintained some thrift, notwithstanding the paralizing policy of Philip the Catholic. The priests were for murdering them all. But the secular influence at the court succeeded in somewhat modifying the decree. The Moriscoes were ordered to leave the country, taking nothing with them. No less than one hundred thousand lives were lost in carrying out this decree. At one stroke was fatally crippled the skilled industry of the country, and important productions, such as the raising of cotton, rice and sugar, were cut off. Large tracts of hitherto fertile lands became utterly waste, and ever since have served only as lurking-places of robbers and wild beasts.

PHILIP III.

It is needless and would be tedious to follow the downward course of Catholic Spain in detail. There was never any very important departure from

the policy of persecution foreshadowed by Isabella's bigotry and fully established by Charles V. From the accession of that first king of the house of Hapsburg, 1516, until the death of the last of the Hapsburgs, Charles II., 1700, the population declined from ten to six millions. There were only five kings of this line, beginning and ending with a Charles and having three Philips between. Each king in this line was a weaker edition of his predecessor until the dynasty itself ran out and became extinct with the death of Charles II.



MADRID.

When Philip IV. came to the throne there were it is estimated, 9,000 monasteries in Spain, besides unnumbered nunneries, and friars, priests and ecclesiastical vampires innumerable. During the reign of this feeble and vicious monarch civil wars were chronic in many parts of the kingdom, and in 1640 Portugal resumed its national individuality. In his reign the independence of the Netherlands was acknowledged and several American possessions were lost.

The last of the Spanish Hapsburgs was Charles II. (the Charles who out of regard to his being Emper of Germany is usually designated Charles V. having been in reality Charles I. of Spain.) This pitiful wreck of a man was on the throne from 1665 to 1700. Under him the population of Spain decreased 3,000,000, and the population of Madrid which had been as high as 400,000 fell to 200,000. Speaking of the condition of the country under this king, Niemann says, "The army, once so celebrated, was now worth nothing; it had neither able leaders nor reliable soldiers; the arsenals and magazines were empty; the fleets rotted in the docks; the art of building ships was forgotten; of sea charts there were none, and Spanish pilots were notoriously ignorant. The poverty was so great that even the royal servants could not be paid, and the members of the royal household went hungry."

Fortunately this Charles was physically impotent. Nature lifted from the country the incubus of that detestable dynasty.

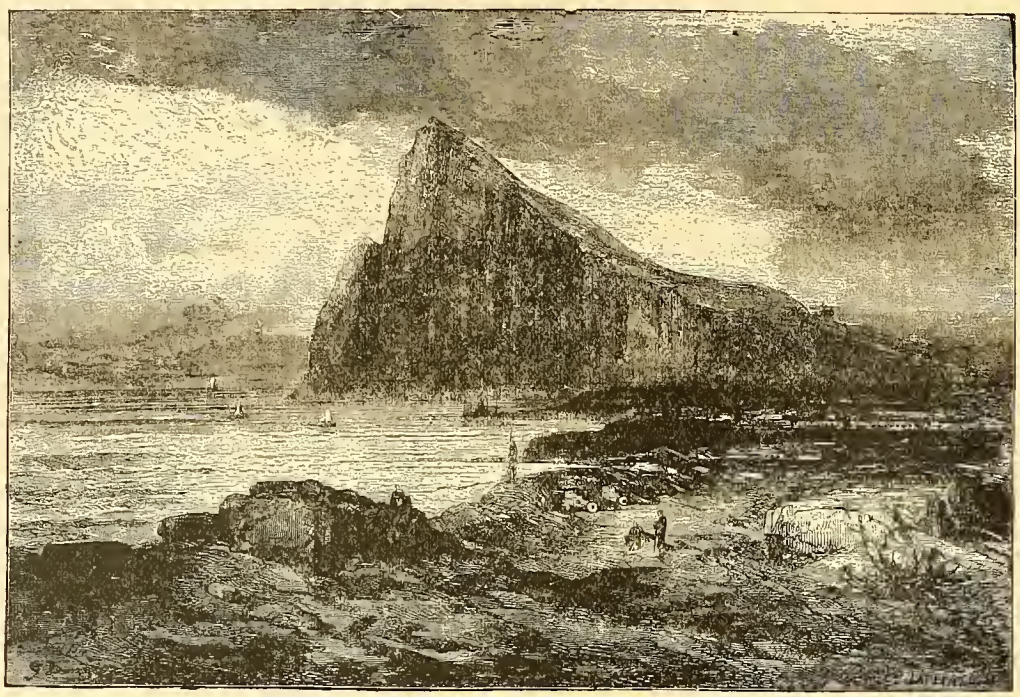
The last of all the Hapsburgs bequeathed his crown to the grandson of "the Grand Monarch." Louis XIV. of France. That first of all the Bourbons to sit upon the only throne now occupied by a Bourbon, was Philip IV. This arrangement did not suit Austria, England and Holland, who wanted Charles, Archduke of Austria, to succeed as Charles III., apprehensive that France and Spain might be consolidated. The War of Succession which followed continued thirteen years. It was during this war that Marlborough won immortal fame as a soldier, and the British navy under Admiral Rook of England took Gibraltar. France assisted Philip, but in the end he was obliged to part with a very considerable portion of his kingdom. England took the pillars of Hercules for her portion, and that gateway to the Mediterranean has proved the very key to maritime, and, largely, to European supremacy. Austria acquired by the treaty of

Utrecht as her share of Spanish plunder, Naples, Sardinia, Milan, and what remained to it in the Netherlands. Sicily was given to Savoy. The reign of Philip was a long one. He held the scepter until 1746. The country improved somewhat under him. The loss of possessions in Europe beyond the national limits of the kingdom was highly beneficial.

Philip IV. was succeeded by Ferdinand VI. This weak and inefficient sovereign wore the crown thirteen years. During that period the country declined once more. At the time he came to the throne war was being waged between the great powers of Europe, as usual, but two years after his accession the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was negotiated, and after that Ferdinand lived in peace. He could not be induced by even the offer of Gibraltar once more to join in the general war which raged.

At the death of Ferdinand, Charles III., his brother, came to the throne. For twenty-nine years he occupied the throne, and tried to improve the condition of the country. The Inquisition was held in check. Only three victims were burned by it, we are told, during all that period. He was not popular, however. The clerical influence was entirely and bitterly hostile. The priests kept the people from sympathy with progressive and reformatory ideas.

When Charles IV. came to the throne, 1788, the ecclesiastics resumed their former sway over the affairs of state. It was this king who in 1795 ceded to France the island of Hayti. The year following an alliance with France was negotiated which resulted in enabling Napoleon to employ the military and naval forces of Spain to further his own ambitious designs and, ultimately, to appropriate the kingdom itself. In the great naval battle of Trafalgar Lord Nelson very nearly annihilated the Spanish fleet. About that time Trinidad was lost to Spain, and acquired by England. It was during this same reign that Spain ceded Louisiana to France.



THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

In March, 1808, there was a revolution which deposed Charles and raised to the throne Ferdinand VII. Both appealed to Napoleon, who settled the matter by ordering them both to abdicate,

which they did, whereupon he appointed his elder brother, Joseph Bonaparte, King over Spain. This appointment was made June 5th. Joseph entered Madrid July 20th. The opposition rallied around Ferdinand and drove the amiable Joseph out of the capital. Thereupon Napoleon himself took the matter in hand. He restored his brother in December. A new element in the conflict of Napoleon with Europe soon developed itself. The Duke of Wellington came on from India, and coming by way of Portugal, carried the war against Napoleon into the Spanish peninsula. The disaffection of the country rallied around Wellington, adding materially to his strength. Ferdinand was restored to the throne in 1814. It was in the year 1809 that the Peninsula War began. Wellington won a victory at Talavera in 1809, but for the most part was obliged during the five years to fall back upon his Portuguese base, until the Russian disaster of Napoleon. After that, Wellington made rapid progress in the expulsion of the French from Spain. The treaty of Valencia, by which Napoleon formally abandoned all claims to Spain was signed in December, 1813. The Cortes promptly invited Ferdinand to take the reins of government, and rule in accordance with a constitution which had been formed nearly two years previously.

FERDINAND VII.

The reign of Ferdinand VII., which really began with the year 1814, extended until 1833. He belonged to the Dark Ages, and both disregarded the constitution and persecuted those who had invited him to the throne. He ruled in accordance, however, with the average public sentiment of the country. The people were better pleased with him than they would have been with a better ruler, so complete and demoralizing was the clerical domination. The inquisition was restored with all its attendant abominations.

It was during this reign that the colonies, which had made some progress toward independence during the rule of the Bonaparte, achieved independence. It may be stated here that Joseph Bonaparte came to the United States, and upon a pleasant estate in New Jersey spent the last years of his life quietly and respectably, leaving behind him a reputation as a worthy gentleman of no special force of character. In 1819 Spain sold Florida to the United States for $5,000,000 and the recognition of certain boundary claims on the Mexican frontier.

With all his medieval and ecclesiastical tendencies Ferdinand was not reactionary enough to suit the priests. They wanted the "good old times" of the Hapsburgs restored. They formed "The Apostolic Junta" and incited the Carlist insurrection, which, with some interruptions continued for half a century to be an element of discord in Spain.

ISABELLA II.

We have used the name *Charles* thus far in this chapter, because it is generally employed, but the name which is *Charles* in English and *Karl* in German is *Carlos*, or *Don Carlos*, in Spain. *Don* in Spanish and *Dom* in Portuguese, originally meant lord, although subsequently a mere proper name. With this much explanation we proceed with the Carlist movement. When Napoleon's star set and Ferdinand VII. came to the throne, the latter had a younger brother, Don Carlos. The king was a debauchee of the lowest type. He had several wives and no children, and having quarreled with his brother, he was sorely distressed by the thought that

Don Carlos would be his successor upon the throne. The counselors of the royal household persuaded the king and queen that for the sake of baffling Don Carlos it would be right for the queen to be untrue to her marriage vow. The fruit of that suggestion was a daughter, Isabella. The dilemma was as great as ever, however, for by the Salic law, which had been introduced by the first Bourbon and was binding upon that dynasty, whether in France or Spain, only males were heirs to the crown. A second child was also a daughter. The king then, 1830, proclaimed the repeal of the Salic law, and that the elder daughter, Isabella, was the heir apparent. There was repugnance to the repeal of the Salic law throughout Spain, and extensive preparations for civil war followed. Both sides were prepared for the struggle, thought to be inevitable upon the death of the king. The clergy and peasantry generally espoused the cause of Don Carlos, while the more liberal element was won over to the side of Isabella by the promise of respect for the constitution.

In the meanwhile Louis Philippe came to the French throne and espoused the cause of Isabella, it being agreed that she should marry a husband chosen for her, and in case of failure of issue the crown was to go to the children of the other daughter. The wily French King provided an impotent imbecile as the husband of Isabella, marrying Isabella's sister to his own son, thus hoping to secure the crown for his own family, upon the death of Isabella, who, he well knew, could have no legitimate offspring so long as her husband lived. Rendered desperate by this trick, the queen contracted a morganatic marriage by which she had several children, the present King Alfonso being the elder.

A new and more liberal constitution was promulgated in 1834, and the Inquisition was abolished. the liberal party rallied to the support of Isabella, or rather, of her mother, the queen regent, and what was more helpful to her, English, French and Portuguese troops helped her suppress Carlism. By 1840 the first Carlist war was over.

Isabella II. was a mere child when Ferdinand VIII. died. The regency fell to the queen-mother, Maria Christina, a woman of great ability. For some time the royalists were called *Christinos*. She was not at heart a liberal, and as soon as the Carlists were vanquished she made no concealment of her true nature. The constitution was ignored. But in a few months she was obliged to lay down the reins of government. The Cortes made Espartero regent. He devoted himself to the material improvement of the country, building roads, working the mines, etc. In 1843 the Cortes declared Isabella to be of age. Maria Christina, who had been living in France, soon came back, but her supremacy was short lived. Gen. Narvaez was prime minister of Spain from 1844 to 1851 with some interruptions. He was a truly great statesman, almost the only one Spain had produced since Ximenes. Through the perilous times of that period, especially the revolutionary uprising of 1848, he carried the kingdom successfully.

The guileful marriages of the queen and her younger sister, already mentioned, occurred in 1846. Don Francisco de Bourbon was the withered trunk to which the queen was tied. The sister Louisa was married to the young Duke Montpensier, who was destined to be an important factor in Spanish politics. The queen was justly indignant at the trick played upon her by the Citizen King of France, and her career was deeply disgraceful. In public and private life she was a reproach to her sex and her nation. Many of the best men were banished. The greatest leader of the liberals, however, O'Donnell, was for some time a tremendous power. From 1858 to 1863 he was at the head of the government, distasteful as he was to the queen. For several years thereafter Spain was in a state bordering on chaos, and resulting in the expulsion of the royal family. "The act," says a recent historian, "which led to the immediate exile of Isabella, then enjoying the sea-baths of San Sebastian, was the *pronunciamento* of Cadiz, of September 19, 1868." That declaration of reform was signed by Duke Torre, Marshal Prim, Admiral Topete, and other leading men of the kingdom. So strong was this movement that the queen had to accept the situation without a blow.

SERRANO.

A provisional government was formed with Serrano at the head as regent or president of the ministry, and Prim as war minister, Lorenzana as foreign secre-

tary, Ortiz minister of justice, Topete minister of the marine, Figuerola finance minister, Sagasta minister of the interior, Zorilla minister of commerce, Lopez de Ayala for the colonies. After some hesitation the Cortes finally decided upon a monarchy as the form of government to be adopted. The Duke of Montpensier, Don Fernando, King of Portugal, and Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, were put forward as candidates for the vacant throne. The latter was Prim's candidate. His candidacy occasioned the Franco-Prussian war. His name was withdrawn by his father in July, 1870. In November following, Amadeus, son of Victor Emanuel, and Duke of Aosta, was elected king under the title of Amadeus I. Just before his arrival Marshal Prim was assassinated. That was a death-blow from which the principle of constitutional monarchy in Spain never recovered. Amadeus was an amiable young man, and that was about all there was to him. He wore the crown from January, 1871, to February, 1873, when "the republic succeeded the monarchy as quietly as one sentinel succeeds another."

The first "president of the executive power" was Senor Pi y Marzall, a scholarly gentleman of the press, also a jurist and reformer on general principles. After five weeks he resigned, and Nicholas Salmeron took the reins of government for a few weeks, to be succeeded by the really great and splendid Emilio Castelar. He held sway for some months. Hopes were entertained of a permanent republic; but the nation was unprepared for it. In 1874 Serrano came into power again as regent, and in January, 1875, the house of Bourbon was restored in the person of Isabella's oldest son, the worthy Alfonso XII. He was born in 1857. Of the government as now constituted, Harrison says:

MARGALL. CASTELAR.

"Under him Spain enjoys an hereditary, constitutional monarchy. The king is inviolable; the executive rests in him, the legislative power in king and cortes. Senate and congress compose the cortes, and their meetings are annual. Deputies from Cuba were admitted in 1878. The king convokes, suspends or dissolves cortes, appoints the president and vice-president of the senate from the senate alone, and has responsible ministers. Local self-government is allowed to the various provinces, districts, and communes, with which neither executive nor cortes can interfere except in cases of arbitrary or unconstitutional assumption. The established religion is Catholic, which is maintained by the state, and a limited freedom of worship is allowed to Protestants, though it must be private." Ever since 1835 local self-government has been enjoyed in Spain. But notwithstanding all the latitude allowed under the present regime, there seems to be very little disposition on the part of the Spanish people to share in the improvements of the age. The term "Catholic Spain" is hardly less applicable now than when first applied to the country.

Spain has some art of which it may justly boast, and a very little literature of high merit. Murillo, one of the great masters in painting, was a Spaniard. The *Cid* is an epic of the very highest rank. It is based on a historical character. The Cid Campeador was the ideal of a hero cherished by the Christians of Spain, as against the Moors. The latter represent him as a highwayman, the scourge of honest people. He flourished in the last of the 11th and first of the 12th centuries. The *Song of the Cid* was composed a century or so later. From it dates Castilian poetry, a distinct product, not borrowed from the Moors or any other people, but a truly national body of literature. A convent of Benedictine monks at Cardegna was devoted to the memory of the Cid, for there is his tomb, as the Benedictines claim, and there are his banner, buckler, cup and cross. Philip II. had the Cid canonized by the pope, but his true apotheosis was the work of an unknown poet. Cid is the Spanish corruption of the Arabic word for chief—sed. He was also called Campeador, or Champion.

He was the beau ideal of devotion to the Crown and Cross. Macaulay says of this epic: "It glows with an uncommon portion of the fire of the Iliad," and Southey says, "It is decidedly and above all question the finest poem in the Spanish language." On the same subject Harrison remarks: "The death of the Cid seems to have been the birth of

Castilian poesy—a poesy different as possible from that of the polished, ingenious, and impressionable Moors who haunted palace, delighted in commentaries, and sent messages of battle or reconciliation in verse characterized by an incomparable poetic *technique*. The Castilian popular verse clung faithfully to reality; it was full of dreams of national grandeur obscurely foreshadowed; it deified, with an intuitive political sense, the great champion of the people and opponent of an unjust ruler; it transformed an historic king, half a century after his death, into an idealized and half-fabulous hero.

"There were three Cids: the cavalier, who could fight better than all others, who protected and governed his king when he was not fighting him, brutally vigorous and frank, inaccessible to tender feeling, a violater of holy places; then a nobler, loyaller, chivalric, Christian Cid, who grew out of the impassioned reveries and reminiscences of the author of the *Song of the Cid* in 1200—a champion fervently adoring the Eternal, blessed with visions of archangels, absolutely devoted to the king and fatherland, full of fatherly tenderness for his daughters, Dona Elvira and Dona Sol, full of dignity and glory arising from a consciousness of just deeds and chivalrous enterprises, the noblest type of honor, religion, patriotism, and knightliness; and lastly, the Cid of the *romanceros* of the sixteenth century, who is a sort of Cid *galant*, overflowing with fine talk and sentimental rhodomontade."

In 1681 Spain lost by death a truly great dramatist, Calderon. His works have never been translated. His bicentennial was celebrated with great pomp in Spain, and was received with expressions of warm admiration from the literati of other nations.

CERVANTES.

The supreme name in Spanish literature is Cervantes, a brave soldier who lost the use of his left arm fighting in the ranks in that brilliant and important sea-fight with the Ottoman fleet, the battle of Lepanto, fought late in the sixteenth century. His *Don Quixote* is widely read in many languages. It is a prose satire upon the mock heroism of chivalric romances, the novels of his day. It has been said that Cervantes laughed chivalry out of Europe. It would be more accurate to say that he rent and exposed to just ridicule the tinseled robe of romance which it wore as regal purple, for chivalry itself died when fire-arms came into use.

Quite a large body of national ballads of unknown authorship exists in the Spanish language which are eminently creditable. Through Lockhart's admirable translations they have been added to the treasures of English literature.

The colonial possessions of Spain at the present time consist of the islands of Cuba, Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands, Caroline Islands, and Palos, the Marian Islands, and a small area (483 square miles) in Northern Africa, Fernando Po and Annabon. total area 113,678 square miles; total population, 6,399,347. The first, second and third alone have any importance, and they are dwelt upon more especially under the head of "Central America and the Isles of the Sea."

The length of railroads in Spain on the first day of 1880, was 4,067 miles, with 1,242 miles more in the course of construction. The government has liberally subsidized the lines, but they are owned and operated by private enterprise. Not much more than half the soil of the kingdom is under any sort of cultivation, and the average productiveness of the land under tillage is much less than formerly.

The supreme characteristic of Spain is that peculiarly brutal and demoralizing amusement, the bull fight, the favorite Sunday entertainment of the people of all classes. It consists simply of an encounter between an infuriate beast and a trained athlete and swordsman, with every advantage on the side of the man. Occasionally he is gored by the horns of the maddened brute. This sort of barbarity is a relic of the gladiatorial arena of Rome, and is at once cause and effect of the demoralized national character of the Spanish people.

PORTUGAL AND THE PORTUGUESE.

CHAPTER LII.

PORTUGAL, OLD AND NEW—LISBON, ITS CAPTURE, EARTHQUAKE AND POPULATION—LAST DAYS OF ALFONSO—MARITIME SUPREMACY—ZARGA AND MADEIRA—VASCO DA GAMA, THE AZORES, AND CAPE OF GOOD HOPE—DA GAMA AND INDIA—PORTUGAL AND BRAZIL—DOM SEBASTIAN AND SEBASTIANISM—SUBSEQUENT PORTUGUESE EVENTS—PORT WINE—CAMOENS' LUSIAD.

THE distinctive history of Portugal dates from 1095, with a subsequent period of mergence in Spain. Prior to that time it was an indistinguishable part of Spain (using the modern term for the Iberian Peninsula). Before that time it had been subject, in turn, to the Romans, Visigoths, and Moors. At the close of the eleventh century Alfonso V., King of Leon and Castile, wrested from the Moors that part of their European possessions lying between the Minho and the Douro, and gave it to his son-in-law, Henry, who called himself Count of Portugal. The name was suggested by the capital, Porto Cale. Henry's son Alfonso had the title of king conferred upon him by the pope, in reward for his gaining a victory over the Moors at the battle of Ourique, 1139, in consequence of which victory his possessions were extended to the Tagus. By the middle of the following century the kingdom comprised substantially the same territory as it does to-day.

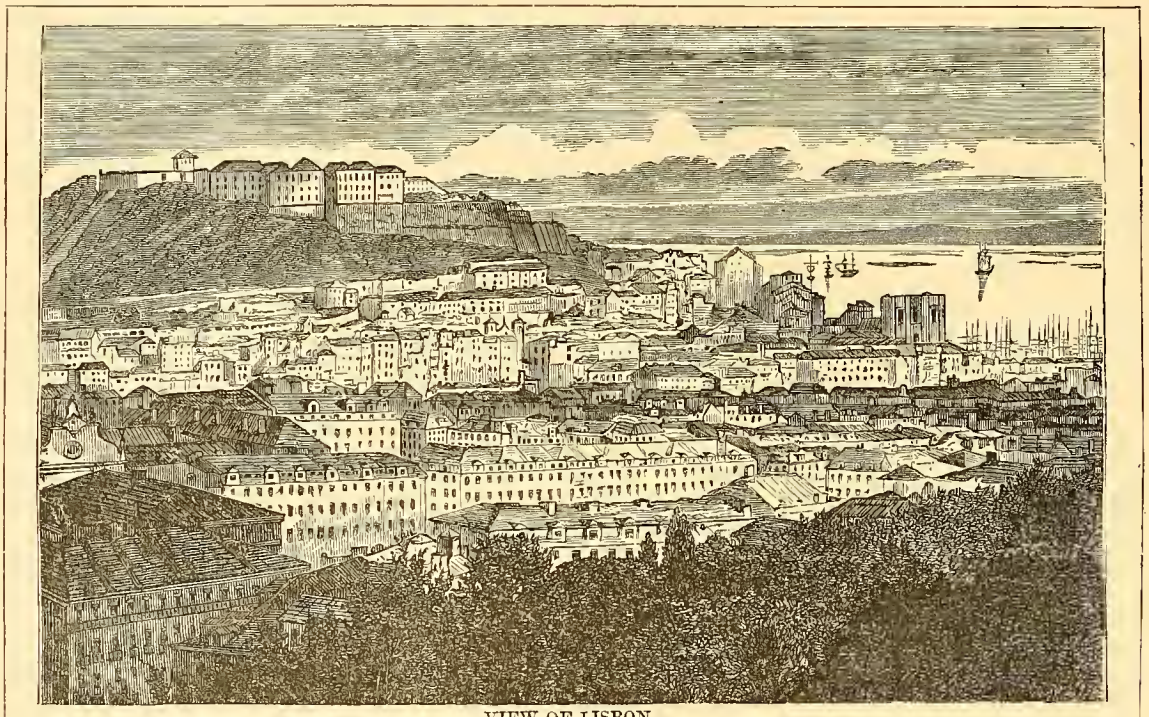
The area of Portugal is 36,510 square miles, and the population a trifle over four millions. The period of mergence in Spain was from 1580 to 1640, during which time three sovereigns of that country, Philip II., III., and IV., ruled over the entire peninsula. There have been thirty-five sovereigns of Portugal, not counting the Spanish usurpers, the present king, Louis I., coming to the throne in 1861. The Portuguese call the period of the three Philips, "the Captivity." When once the scepter of the Spaniard was broken the country became singularly free from both foreign intervention and domestic revolution. But those years of tranquillity have been years of utter insignificance. The just pride and real importance of Portugal goes back of "the Captivity." For the most part Portuguese history is a dreary wilderness, but a few episodes of interest are found here and there in its record, like oases in a desert.

The first Portuguese king was a very remarkable man, the inconsequential nature of his realm, rather than his personal character, being the explanation of his comparative obscurity. His conquests over the Moors were the first important steps toward their final subjugation. In order to extend his dominion to the mouth of the Tagus he was obliged to take Lisbon, then a Moorish city, and the richest, most populous and best fortified town on the peninsula. It is supposed to have had at that

time a population of at least four hundred thousand. It was the chief center of trade between Europe and Africa. In laying siege to it the great king had the genius and good fortune to secure the effective alliance of the English, German and Flemish crusaders, just starting out for the Second Crusade. It was a co-operation which enabled Alfonso to attack by land and water, albeit he himself had no ships. In recognition of the service rendered by English allies an Englishman by the name of Gilbert was appointed first bishop of Lisbon. It may be added that Lisbon now has a population of about 250,000. In 1755 it suffered a most desolating earthquake followed at once by a terrible conflagration. Not less than 30,000 lives were lost. A portion of the present city antedates that calamity, but the greater part of Lisbon was completely destroyed.

The long reign of this first king of Portugal was almost constantly occupied with war. Sometimes he was fighting neighboring Christians, sometimes adjacent Saracens, and sometimes Moors from across the Mediterranean. His final exploit was a bold and successful sortie upon an army from Morocco which had laid siege to Lisbon.

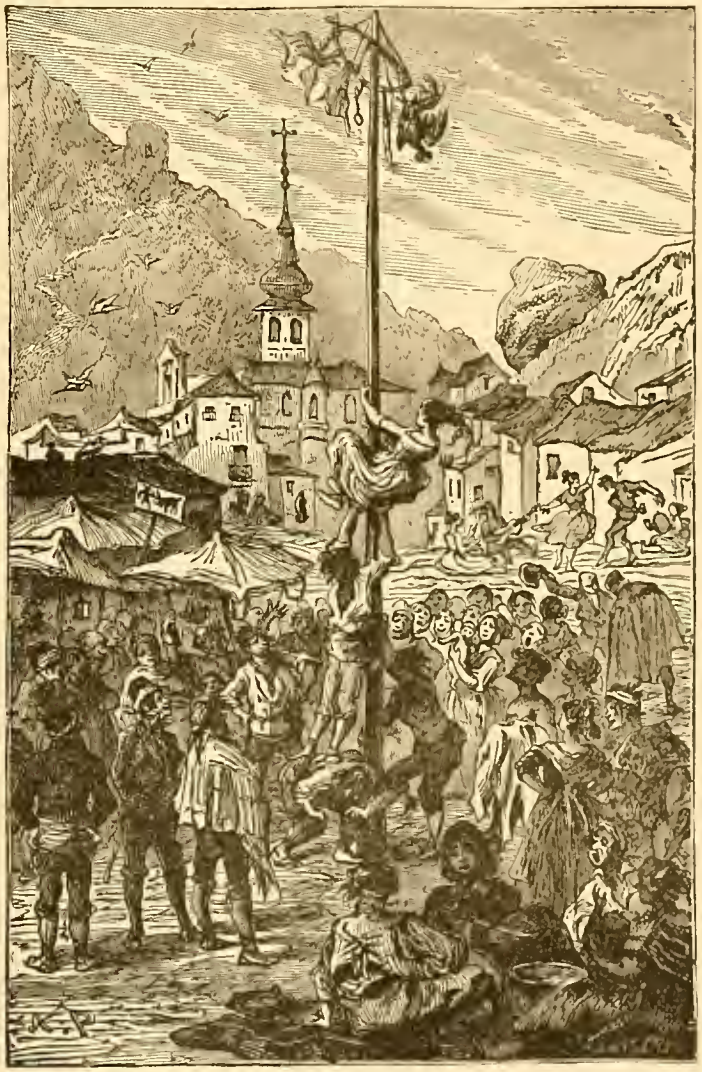
Not only did Alfonso I. maintain and enlarge the borders of Portugal, but he also laid the foundations of that maritime greatness which raised the Portuguese kingdom to its highest summit, and may be said to constitute the one claim of the nation to pre-eminence. He encouraged marine expeditions, conferring knighthood upon those who distinguished themselves in that line. In this policy he was impartial as between natives and foreigners. He sowed the seed of a bountiful harvest. Indeed, it is hardly less to Portugal than to Spain that the world owes the discovery of America, albeit the Portuguese court declined to render Columbus the succor he finally secured from the Queen of Castile. Had it not been for what Columbus did, saw and learned at Lisbon the fire of discovery would never have been kindled in his brain.



VIEW OF LISBON.

It was in 1184 that Alfonso died. It was not until the year 1419, that Portuguese seamanship demonstrated its superiority and Portugal gained its first foothold abroad. In that year an enterprising tar, Zarga, made a voyage of discovery in a southwestern direction. His boldness was rewarded with the discovery of the beautiful island of Madeira,

nearly a thousand miles away. The Azores islands and Cape Verde were later discoveries. Madeira became famous for its wine, also for its rich yield of sugar before Cuba eclipsed it. The island is small and has been mainly useful to Europe of late as a retreat for invalids, especially sufferers from lung difficulties. The climate is absolutely delicious. There were no inhabitants upon it when discovered, and the present people are a mixed race, the Portuguese and Negro blood being intermingled.



RURAL FESTIVITIES.

Slavery existed there once, but was long since abolished. The last vestige of slavery in the Portuguese colonies was wiped out in 1878. The total colonial possessions of Portugal embrace 709,469 square miles and a population of over three millions, mostly in Africa and the islands adjacent to the dark continent. But these possessions are trivial as compared with what originally seemed likely to be Portugal's share in the Orient and the New World.

The Azores islands were discovered twenty years later than Madeira. The great achievement of Portuguese enterprise, however, was the discovery of the passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. What Columbus vainly sought by sailing westward, missing it only to find something incomparably better, was found by skirting along the western coast of Africa. Ships from Lisbon had long been doing a thrifty trade with the Africans, finding a region previously supposed to be uninhabited, peopled by a race of savages who were only too eager to exchange for the baubles of civilization ivory and other precious things. It had been the theory of Ptolemy that Africa extended westward as it extended southward. The Portuguese found that just the opposite was the case, and that encouraged them to push their way farther and farther in the hope of finding a point at which land ceased. Their hope was realized. Repeated expeditions were made without success, beyond the farther extension of commerce, until Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope and sailed along the eastern coast of Africa. The people he found to be less barbarous than the negroes of the west; at least he came upon some evidences of semi-civilization, and traces of intercourse with Asia. Feeling his way along the coast cautiously, he crossed the Indian Ocean and landed on the coast of Malabar, May 22, 1498. He was absent from Lisbon

two years, returning with a rich cargo of Indian goods.

A revolution in oriental traffic was now inevitable. The Isthmus of Suez had long been closed, except for caravans, and intercourse between the far East and Western Europe was partly by land and partly by the Mediterranean. But henceforth an easier and less expensive route, thanks to Vasco da Gama, was practicable.

Portugal was in a position to make good use of the discovery made, for it had a large merchant marine and for a long time was ruled by a public-spirited monarch. The Portuguese carried on trade in India without rivalry or check during a period of many years. But in 1525 King John III. became more interested in crushing out Islam heresy and Judaism by the Inquisition than in developing the Indian trade. The general character of the country was seriously impaired by this policy, and the way thus prepared for the displacement of the Portuguese in the East by a more intelligent and secular people. The rise of the British Empire in Hindoostan, and of the supremacy of the British flag upon every sea was made possible by the baneful influence of the church in Portugal. As that empire rose, Portuguese commerce dwindled until now it is hardly the shadow of its former greatness.

This same King John established a kingdom in America, Brazil, which is now a very considerable power. It had been discovered in 1510 by Pedro Alvarez Cabral, who entered with zeal into the project of Christianizing that portion of the new world. The Brazil of to-day is the proudest living monument of the golden age of Portugal.

King John was succeeded in 1557 by his infant son, Dom Sebastian. When this sovereign came to years of independence (he never reached years of discretion) he was absolutely eager to subjugate the Moors across the Mediterranean. He gathered a magnificent army, and in 1577 set sail from Lisbon, resolved to carry the war into Africa and accomplish a great deliverance for Christendom. He had powerful auxiliaries from other nations of Europe. A great battle was fought August 3, at Atcacer Quibir. The Europeans were utterly defeated, and Dom Sebastian himself, who led his forces in person, was lost. He is supposed to have been killed, stripped and mutilated beyond recognition. But his fate proved to be one of the most remarkable mysteries of all history. All sorts of stories were told by those who pretended to have seen him alive after the battle, and his subjects were disposed to believe that he had escaped and would return. So strong was this belief that it developed highly interesting results. A body supposed to be his was buried with all possible honors in the monastery of Belem at Lisbon, but the hope of his survival was still cherished.

One especial cause of Sebastianism (as this curious hope came to be called) was the danger of national annihilation, which his death involved. He had no direct heir, and Philip of Spain claimed the throne. His claim could not be disputed, and "the Captivity" followed, during all which time the credulous Portuguese persisted in expecting Sebastian's return. The church fostered the delusion that he was on a distant island, and would some fine day sail up the Tagus with a splendid and irresistible fleet. This hope has not entirely died out even yet, and all through "the Captivity" served to keep alive the national sentiment. It contributed largely to the preservation of a patriotism which made Portugal improve the opportunity afforded by the utter imbecility of the court at Madrid to regain its individuality as a nation.

The revolution by which Portugal escaped absorption into Spain occurred in 1640, and was effected with very little bloodshed. The kingdom held on the tenor of its way, suffering little from war and much from superstition, until the Napoleonic wars. Obliged to take sides, the government formed an alliance with England and the other Allies. Napoleon sent a small army into the country, declared the throne vacant and the country a part of France. That was in 1807. The nominal head of the government was Queen Maria, but she being insane, the regency had been conferred upon John Maria Joseph, Prince of Brazil. That was in 1792. When the French soldiery came, he set sail from Lisbon, for Rio Janeiro. When the empire of Napoleon fell, Prince John returned to Spain, leaving his son, Dom Pedro, Regent of Brazil. It was in 1822 that the latter became Emperor of Brazil, and complete separation occurred, and that without any bloodshed. In a few years Dom Pedro came into possession of the crown of Portugal also, but he soon surrendered it to his daughter Donna Maria, preferring to remain at Rio

Janeiro. Before, that, however, he had granted the people a constitution. Not long, after civil war arose in Portugal, furnishing an excuse for British interference, which reduced the country to a condition of semi-subjugation to England. Its foreign policy has ever since been what the British desired it to be, except as there were occasional "perfidies," as the English writers brand every attempt at self-assertion on the part of Portugal.

The Portuguese can boast only one really great name in literature, Camoens, author of that grand and truly classic epic, the Lusiad. The old Roman name for Portugal was Lusitania, and the poem which bears a name derived from the same root recounts the proudest achievements in the history of the nation. for the epic is founded on the maritime exploits of Da Gama, who is its hero. Camoens' own life was one of adventure by land and sea, especially in the far East. He was fully imbued with the spirit of enterprise, and his elaborate verse is the noblest literary monument ever raised in honor of the dominant spirit of that age. The great man drained to the dregs the cup of ingratitude. He died a pauper in the city of Lisbon. After his death the Portuguese became aware of his genius and have ever cherished his memory. He is the one literary man of that country deserving of even mention. His Lusiad belongs in the best of the world's classics.

VIEW OF OPORTO.

Portugal is famous for its wine. Its vintage and the country itself both derive their name from the seaport town of Oporto. This wine was brought into prominence by the British policy of encouraging its importation into England, while discouraging by heavy duties the importation of French wines, a policy which grew out of the fact that in the early years of the present century France and England were at war, while Portugal was the passive ally of the British. Besides, the English preferred port to claret and other light wines.

THE SCANDINAVIANS.

CHAPTER LIII.

ICELAND, DENMARK, NORWAY AND SWEDEN, THE COUNTRIES EMBRACED—ICELAND AND ITS LITERATURE—DENMARK—THE DANES IN HISTORY—HAMLET—NORWAY AND THE NORWEGIANS—AREA, POPULATION AND EMIGRATION—CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS—THE BIRTH OF A LITERATURE—SWEDEN AND PROTESTANTISM—GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS—THE SWEDES IN AMERICA—DECLINE OF SWEDEN—PRESENT GOVERNMENT AND CONDITION OF SWEDEN—NATURAL RESOURCES OF THE COUNTRY—SCANDINAVIAN MYTHOLOGY—GREENLAND, AND THE NORSEMEN IN AMERICA.

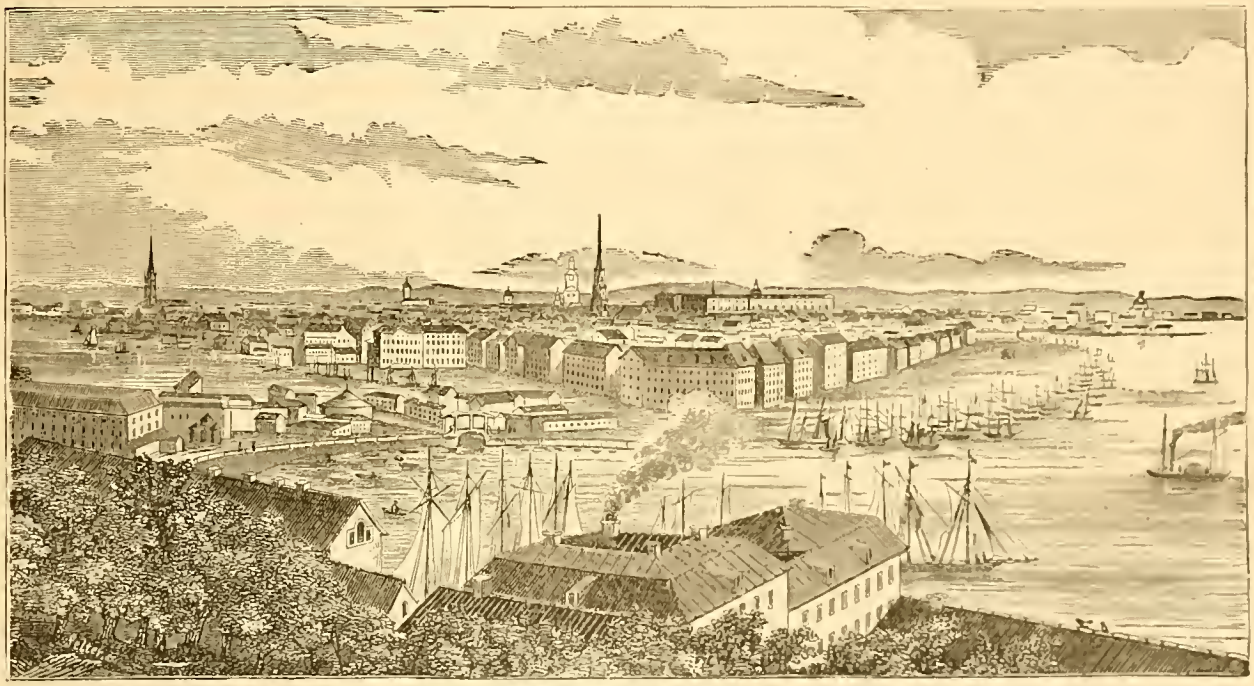
THE term Scandinavia is no longer in use, except historically, but the inhabitants of Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Iceland are still called Scandinavians. Although not living under one government, they form, substantially, one people. Distinct yet inseparable, they are several nations, but one people.

In immemorial times and until about the eleventh century the Scandinavians spoke one tongue. The language now has two branches besides the original, the Danish and the Swedish. The original speech is preserved in truly pristine purity in Iceland, and that frigid land must have peculiar interest for every student of Norse history. It was in the ninth century that the country was settled by Scandinavian colonists. That bleak island now has a population of less than one hundred thousand persons, but during all these ages it has preserved the songs and stories of their ancestors in the primitive language of Scandinavia, enriching the literature with much which commands the admiration of scholars.

For something more than three hundred years (928 to 1262) Iceland was a happy republic. The people are still remarkable for their intelligence. They are brave, pure and amiable. "The old tongue," says Peterson, "which is the foundation of the three Scandinavian languages, they have kept during 3000 years in its original purity, and the humblest workman can read and write, and is thoroughly conversant with the Sagas, the history and the laws of his country and the Bible." Iceland is 600 miles from Norway, 250 miles from Greenland and 500 from Scotland. The long winters give ample leisure for study. Once a dependency of Denmark, the country is now entirely independent, only the King of Denmark is the hereditary head of the Icelandic government. To all intents and purposes the country is a republic in which all citizens are equal before the law. The climate admits of very little agriculture. The pursuits of the people are pastoral and piscatorial. The country is of a volcanic formation. The Hecla is the chief volcano of the island, and in its neighborhood is the great Geyser or Hot Sulphur Spring. The houses of the people are built of lava blocks and moss. In everything but climate and

soil, which could hardly be worse, Iceland is an earthly paradise.

The once proud, but now insignificant, kingdom of Denmark consists of the peninsula of Jutland and several adjacent islands of the Baltic Sea. Copenhagen is the capital. The government is a limited monarchy. The present king, Christian IX., is best known as the father of Alexandra, Princess of Wales, Maria Dagmar, Empress of Russia, and Georgios I., King of Greece. The executive power is vested in the king and his ministry, the law-making power being vested in the Rigsdag, with its senate, called Landsthing and its lower house, called Tolkething. These branches of the legislature represent, as their names would indicate, respectively the landed aristocracy and the people at large. The state religion is the Lutheran. Absolute freedom of worship is enjoyed, but there are very few dissenters from the established church. Protestantism in Denmark dates from 1536. Elementary education is universal and obligatory. There is a prosperous university at Copenhagen and thirteen colleges located in the different large towns of the country.



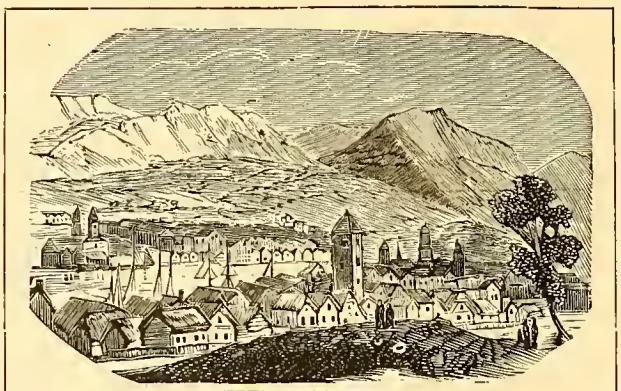
VIEW OF COPENHAGEN.

The Danes appeared first upon the surface of history as piratical invaders of England. That was in the ninth century. In the eleventh century they very nearly completed the conquest of Britain, their king at that time being Canute, the greatest sovereign of his age. It was under him that Denmark was Christianized. Near the close of the fourteenth century Queen Margaret the Dane effected the conquest of all Scandinavia, uniting Sweden and Norway to Denmark. That consolidation was called "The Union of Calmar." Margaret died in 1411, and her nephew Eric was appointed her heir, but each nation chose its own ruler. Thirty-seven years later Denmark chose Christian I., Count of Oldenburg, its king, and the house of Oldenburg wore the Danish crown from 1448 to 1863. There were sixteen kings of that dynasty, with an average reign of twenty-six years. The present sovereign belongs to the Multiplex house of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glucksburg, to which name might properly be added, Hesse-Cassel.

For many generations Denmark avoided complicity with general European affairs, but it became somewhat involved in the Napoleonic Wars as an ally of France. That alliance resulted in the loss of Norway. The great uprising in Europe against despotism in 1848 extended to that kingdom and re-

sulted in securing for the people a truly liberal constitution, one under which the real authority of the crown is reduced to the minimum. The latest appearance of Denmark upon the international stage of action was in the Schleswig-Holstein War set forth in German history.

The highest distinction of Denmark is not historical, but histrionic. The genius of Shakspeare made use of a semi-historical, semi-mythical episode in the annals of the Danish court as the canvas on which to paint his masterpiece, Hamlet. The Danes have a vivid tradition of the melancholy prince, and point with pride to his supposed grave at Elsinore. There was an old play of Hamlet which Shakspeare rewrote and into which he infused the life and light of genius. The historical basis, so far as there is any, belongs to the sixteenth century.



VIEW OF BERGEN.

When the allies, after their victory over Napoleon at Waterloo, deprived Denmark of Norway, in punishment for French alliance, they proposed to cede the latter to Sweden; but the Norwegians made such an earnest and manly protest against it that Norway was recognized as an independent kingdom, although under the same dynastic head as Sweden. The union with Denmark covered the long period from 1387 to 1814. In the early days of Scandinavia the Norwegians were the leading element and the land conquered by the Scandinavians in France (912), was called Normandy.

With an area of 122,869 square miles, Norway has a population of about 2,000,000. It is an agricultural and pastoral country, especially the latter. It has two large towns, Christiana, with a population in 1880 of 116,801, and Bergen about one-third the size of the metropolis. Great numbers of the people emigrate to this country. In 1873 the emigration reached 13,865. It has fallen off somewhat since, but is still great and constant. The State of Minnesota has a very large percentage of Scandinavian population.

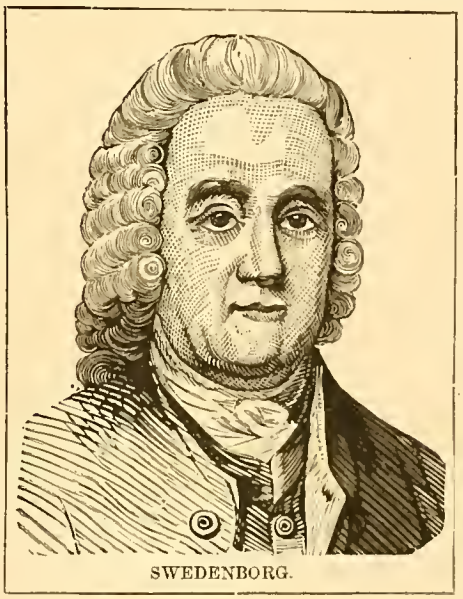
Norway can boast the largest merchant marine, in proportion to population, in the world. At the end of 1879 the shipping of that country numbered 8,125 vessels, of a total burthen of 1,509,477 tons, manned by 58,609 sailors. There, as in Denmark, the Lutheran church is everywhere predominant, and education is compulsory. The legislative authority is vested in the Storthing, divided into two branches, the Lagthing and the Oldenthing. The executive authority is exercised by the king nominally, but really by a council of state composed of two ministers and nine counselors.

Norway extends 1,080 miles from north to south, with a breadth varying from 270 to 20 miles. The coast line is fringed with islands and indented with fjords. The chief river is Glommen, or Stor-Elven, as one part of it is called. Owing to the gulf-stream the country is not as cold as the latitude would indicate. But for that ocean river, Norway would be uninhabitable. The chief source of revenue is timber. The pines, firs and birch of that land are of great value. The fisheries and mines are also very considerable sources of revenue, especially the former. The iron, copper and silver mines yield less than a million dollars a year, all told, while the annual catch of fish exported, including oysters, cannot be worth less than $5,000,000. The rivers fairly swarm with salmon and salmon trout.

Since its separation from Denmark Norway has developed a distinctively national literature, and can boast one name of world-wide fame, Bjornstjern Bjornson. Hans Christian Andersen is the best known Scandinavian author. The *Synnove Solbakken*, published in 1856, is regarded as the beginning of Norwegian literature.

Sweden is really the major part of Scandinavia, of which Gustavus Wasa was the first great sovereign. That monarch did much to strengthen the nation and weaken the clergy. His reign began in 1523. The country was at that time torn and tormented with ecclesiastical strife, and so it continued to be until early in the seventeenth century, when

Lutheran Protestantism completely triumphed there, as in Denmark and Norway. The Scandinavians never had any real affiliation with Rome on the part of the people. The popular heart was not enlisted by popish devices. The last Catholic king of Sweden was Sigismund. He was succeeded in 1600 by Charles IX., a zealous Protestant. Eleven years later his great son, Gustavus Adolphus, known as the "Swede of Victory," ascended the throne and reigned twenty-one years. That reign was a splendid period in Swedish history, a memorable one in the history of the world. In the terrible war between Protestantism and Catholicism, in which nearly all Christendom was enlisted, he took a conspicuous part. The history of the Thirty-Years War has for an integral part of its record the exploits of that great soldier and majestic man. He gave his life to the cause of Protestantism.



SWEDENBORG.

Gustavus Adolphus was remarkable for the breadth of his sympathies and the vastness of his plans. Not content with conserving the interests of Sweden, and helping in the religious disenthrallment of Europe, his thoughts went out to America. It was in his day that the most beneficent settlements on this continent were made, and that the seeds of the United States were sown. Acting in a wholly independent way, he projected a settlement in the new world, which he hoped would be the nucleus of an ideal nation. The first Swedish colony in America dates from 1637, five years subsequent to the death of Gustavus, but none the less the idea was his. That colony established itself on the land between Cape Henlopen and Trenton Falls. Delaware is a part of what was then New Sweden. The Swedes had very little to do, as it proved, in the civilization of this continent, but the dream of their great king has been more than realized.

Although Gustavus Adolphus had the honor of raising Sweden to rank among the great powers of Europe, the kingdom attained its highest glory under Charles XI. (1660 to 1697). The peace of Westphalia (1648) had added largely to the territory of the kingdom. When Charles XII. came upon the throne he had beneath his sway a magnificent empire. He left it almost in ruins. Many victories were won over his enemies, but the country was impoverished. His reign extended from 1697 to 1719. His successor was his sister, Ulrica Eleonora. Under her a constitutional government was formed. Gradually the area of Sweden was narrowed until very little remained except Sweden proper. In 1814 Norway came, as we have seen, to form a dynastic union with Sweden, but that was not an important union. The union is declared to be perpetual, "without prejudice, however, to the separate government, constitution and code of laws of either Sweden or Norway." The law of royal succession is the same in both. In the event of an absolute vacancy of the throne the two Parliaments assemble for the election of a common king.

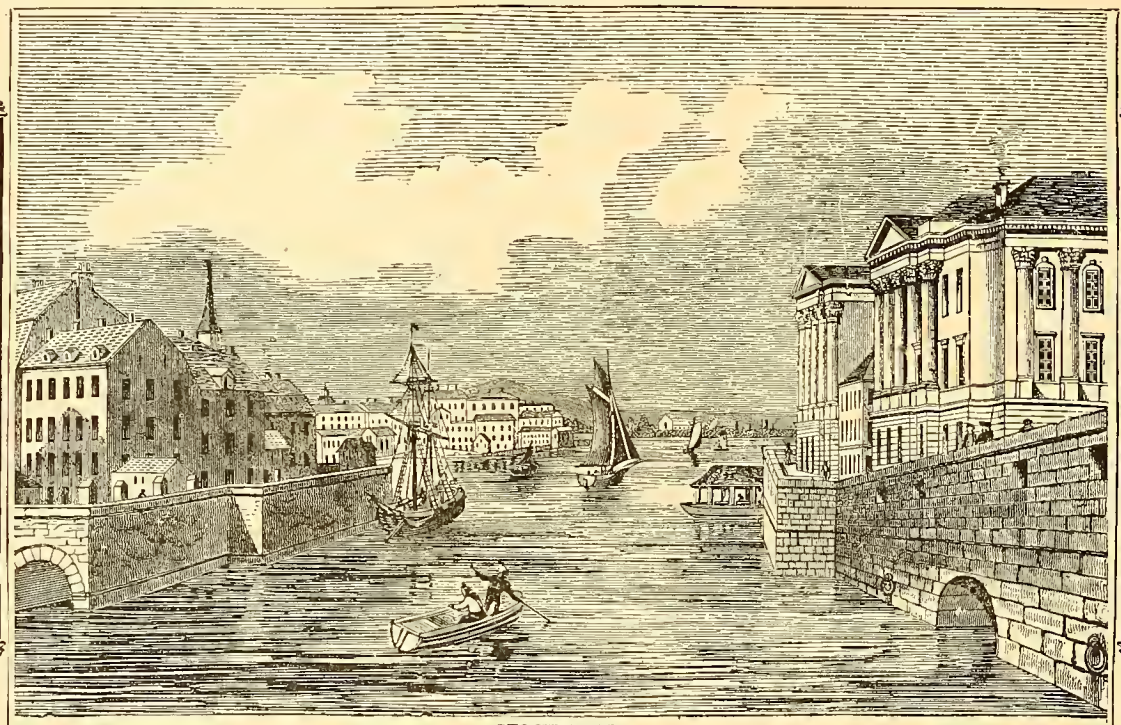
The present organic law of Sweden dates from 1809, although liberal changes were made later, the latest being in 1866. The government is substantially the same as that of Norway, including religion and education. There are two Swedish universities, the one at Upsala being the chief. It numbers among its alumni Emanuel Swedenborg, the great scholar and author who founded what is known as the Church of the New Jerusalem, and was, besides, a great scientist.

The area of Sweden is 170,979 square miles; the population in 1879 was 4,568,901. The emigration from there to this country, which may be said to have begun in 1860, reached its maximum in 1869, during which year it reached 39,064. The Swedes are numerous in the Northwest. Stockholm and Goteborg are the two largest cities of Sweden. It is estimated that 49 per cent. of the country is productive soil, including pasturage. Wheat is raised in the southern part of the kingdom, rye, oats and potatoes being, however, the chief products of the arable land. The iron mines are of great value and importance.

The Scandinavians of to-day can certainly boast

no originality in religion. Even their modernized form of Christianity was borrowed from Germany, the Lutheran church being everywhere prevalent. But that people may well be proud of the fullness, definiteness and originality of their old mythology. Its record is contained in two collections, called the Eddas. The Elder Edda is in verse and dates back to 1056; the younger is a prose work and dates from 1640. In those books are preserved the religious conceptions and myths of ancient Scandinavia. Odin is the Jupiter of that mythology, yet he has strongly marked individuality, showing an origin quite independent of classic mythology. The universe, according to the Scandinavian theory, rests on the great tree, Ygdrasill. The gods dwell in Asgard, and there stands Valhalla, the great hall of Odin. Thor, the Thunderer, is Odin's mighty son. Jotunheim is the home of the Giants. Frey is the god of sunshine and rain, seedtime and harvest. His sister Freya is the goddess of love. The English names of the days of the week were derived from and are perpetual memorials of Scandinavian mythology. Loki is the deity of evil. Many are the legends told of the Scandinavian divinities, their wars, loves, drinking bouts and various exploits. Poets find in these stories rich material for verse.

Mention has been made of the part taken by Sweden in the early settlement of this country. It is claimed by the Scandinavians, and with good reason, too, that their ancestors were really the first discoverers of this continent. In the ninth century an Icelander, Gunbjorn, discovered Greenland. He was soon followed by Eric the Red. Eric gave the country he found the name of Greenland, his account of the country agreeing with the name he gave it. Two settlements were made upon the western continent. It was generally supposed, until recently, that Greenland only was explored; but it is now highly probable that the adventurous keel of the Norsemen plowed along the American coast as far south as New England, and perhaps farther, but in the middle of the fourteenth century came that terrible scourge, the plague, which destroyed the surplus population, killed the germs of colonial enterprise and utterly uprooted whatever may have been already planted on these shores.



STOCKHOLM.

SWITZERLAND AND LESSER EUROPE.

CHAPTER LIV.

THE HOME OF THE GLACIER—THE HELVETI—MEDIEVAL SWITZERLAND—THE STORY OF WILLIAM TELL—THE ALPS—GLACIERS AND AVALANCHES—ZWINGLE, CALVIN AND SERVETUS—SWISS HEROISM AND LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT—THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT—EDUCATION AND INDUSTRY IN SWITZERLAND—THE REPUBLIC OF ANDORRA—SAN MARINO, THE PARADISE OF OFFICE-HOLDERS—MONACO AND GAMBLING—ROUMANIA—SERVIA—MONTENEGRO.

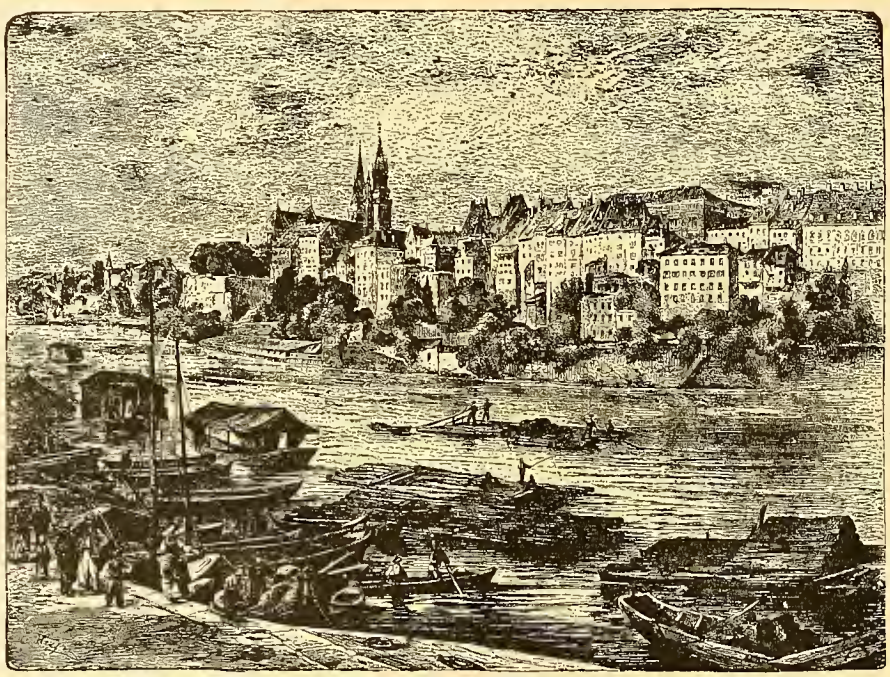
THE name Switzerland is derived from Schwytz, one of the twenty-five cantons of the Confederation. It is the very pinnacle of Europe, nestling in the Alpine crags, protected from France, Germany, Austria and Italy by mountain barriers. With an area of 15,988 square miles and a population of two millions and a half, only 69 per cent. of the land can be called productive, and not much of that is really good soil The stupendous mountain ranges are pecuniarly valuable mainly as they attract visitors. Grain-raising and cattle breeding furnish employment and support for the bulk of the people, but the chief source of Swiss revenue is the entertainment of strangers. The Alps are visited every season by tourists from all over the world, men and women seeking pleasure in scaling the lofty peaks which may be said to be the natural home of the glacier.

In the days of Roman conquest the inhabitants of that mountainous region were known as Helveti. In the wars between the Gauls and the Romans, and later, between the Romans and the Germans, they bore some part, occasionally rising to a good deal of prominence. They were brave soldiers, and once gained supremacy over the warriors of Rome, but their triumph was of short duration, and bore no fruit. The Helveti repeatedly sought to change their sterile mountain fastnesses for homes in the tempting valleys east and west of them, but they were compelled to fall back upon their strongholds. In time their land became a Roman province, and served as a barrier for the protection of Rome from the Teutons. After the northern horde had overrun Italy and destroyed the Empire of the West, the Ostrogoths, Alemans, Franks and Burgundians swept over Switzerland with the besom of desolation.

In 879 the first kingdom of Burgundy was organized, including Switzerland, but after a century and a half of inglorious independence the Carlovingian dynasty absorbed it. The people were not averse to being under the imperial yoke, but the bailiff or vicegerents of the emperor were very distasteful. The only noteworthy rulers were the dukes of Zahringen, who held sway during the twelfth century. One of the dukes of Zahringen instituted the house of Hapsburg, the protector of the forest lands of the duchy, and out of that protectorate grew the rule of the Hapsburgs in Switzerland.

As long ago as the days of the Helveti we hear of "Confederates," but the present Confederation is of much later origin. Its first organization dates back to 1291 when the three forest cantons of Schwytz, Uri, and Unterwalden formed a league. Out of that association grew the Confederation, much as the American Union grew out of the confederation of the original thirteen states. Napoleon was right when he said to a Swiss deputation, "Nature made you to be a federative state," at least such seems fated to be the case. With occasional interruptions the cantons have always been free and united.

The national hero was William Tell. His very existence has been questioned, and certain it is that all known of of him is more legendary than historical. The story is this: Tell was a hunter living in the canton of Uri in the early part of the fourteenth century. At that time the Hapsburg dynasty claimed sovereignty over Switzerland. An Austrian bailiff named Gessler raised a cap on a pole in the market-place of Altorf to which everybody was ordered to bow in token of submission to the government. Tell belonged to an organization formed for the purpose of throwing off the yoke of oppression, and he refused obedience. Gessler condemned him to death, but reprieved him on condition that he would shoot an apple from the head of his own son. Being a remarkable bowman, he ventured the shot, and hit the apple without harming the boy. The tyrannical bailiff noticed that Tell had two arrows, and asked him why he had more than one, to which the intrepid archer replied, "If I had hit my son I should have shot you." The critics pronounce this story a legend common to all Aryan nations, found, with slight variations, in Persia, Denmark, Iceland and elsewhere.



VIEW OF BASLE.

But the chief interest of Switzerland is that vast system of mountains which culminates in Mont Blanc. The Alps extend from the Mediterranean Sea, between Marseilles and Nice, irregularly eastward to about 18° east longitude and 45° 30′ north latitude. The Rhine, Rhone and the Danube are the great rivers which rise in those mountains. The Alps cover an area of nearly 100,000 square miles, extending some 700 miles from east to west, varying in breadth from 50 to 200 miles, with an average elevation of 7,700 feet. There are no less than seven hundred peaks which tower into the region of perpetual snow. Among these are Mont Blanc, 15,784 feet high; Grand Ceroin, 14,815; Finsteraarhorn, 14,025; Schreckhorn, 14,815; Mont Cenis, 11,785, and Jungfrau, 13,114. There are sixteen passes, the most notable being the great St. Bernard, between the valley of the Rhone and Piedmont. Napoleon crossed it in 1800. More than two thousand years before, Hannibal the Great had crossed what is now known as the Little St. Bernard pass,

which connects Geneva, Savoy and Piedmont. In Switzerland the Alps are not enriched with minerals, coal only being found there; but in some outlying portions of the great chain iron, lead and quicksilver abound. The distinctive Alpine animals are the chamois, the ibex, the goat, and the famous dogs of St. Bernard.

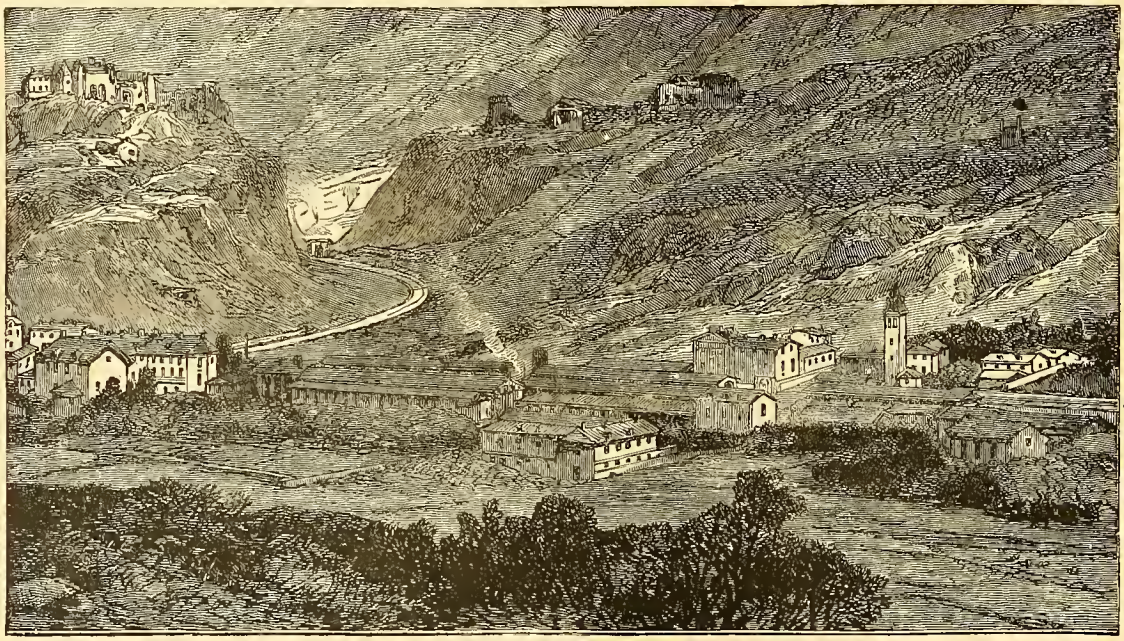
The vast accumulations of ice and snow in the Alpine peaks, called glaciers, have been carefully studied by geologists. It is scientifically certain that glaciers once extended over countries where they are no longer found, and that the traces of them throw light upon our knowledge of the earth. The Alps are the chief arena for the present display of this kind of phenomenon. They are described by Ball as "continuous masses of ice that originate in the region of perpetual snow, but extend far below the snow-line, often reaching the zone of forests, and sometimes descending into inhabited districts in the midst of corn-fields and fruit trees. The ice is very different in appearance from what is commonly seen in winter on streams and lakes. The surface is rough and undulating, not unfrequently scarred by deep clefts. Toward the lower end these ice masses are usually strewn with sand and coarse gravel, and trains of large blocks that disguise the natural color. In former conditions of the earth's surface they attained enormous dimensions, but, if we except those of Greenland, not yet explored, none are known that exceed about 30 miles in length and two or three miles in breadth." These stupendous accumulations of ice and snow are a perpetual menace. They occasionally slip from their moorings and rush downward, carrying death and desolation as they go. Sometimes the slightest cause, as the vibration of air, will precipitate a glacier. A glacier in motion is called an avalanche. The mere sound of a bell has been known to turn a glacier into an avalanche. Some parts of the Alpine valleys are uninhabited on account of the frequent occurrence of these avalanches.

VIEW OF GENEVA.

The first real triumph over the Alps was achieved when the Mont Cenis tunnel was completed. That grand work of engineering is one of the wonders of

the modern world. It was begun in August, 1857, and completed as a tunnel in December, 1870. It was thrown open to traffic in the following September. It lacks only thirty yards of being eight miles long. It cost $15,000,000. Trains run through it in about twenty minutes. It connects Italy and France.

We may now return to a consideration of the people, their ways, history, condition and industries. The Swiss are a very simple-minded people. Their one prominent native name, aside from the mythical Tell, is Zwingle, one of the illustrious names of the religious Reformation. He was a contemporary of Martin Luther and contributed much to Protestantism in its infancy. About one million and a half of the population belong to the Protestant church, leaving a million for the Catholic faith. But Zwingle did less, however, for the Protestant cause than John Calvin. The latter was a Frenchman, but he resided for a long time in Geneva, and may fairly be claimed as a part of Switzerland. Born in 1509, he fled to Geneva from the papal persecutions in France in the year 1536. His first residence was short. He pushed on to Strasburg, but in 1540 he was invited by the senate of Geneva to return. His permanent residence there dates from 1541 to 1564, the latter date being the time of his death. During that time his influence was almost autocratic. His austere theology and cruel bigotry found their most extreme expression in the burning at the stake of Servetus for the crime of being a Unitarian in theology. Many ineffectual attempts have been made to cleanse the skirts of Calvin from the blood of Servetus. The former was indeed opposed to burning the poor heretic, preferring to kill him in a less horrible way, but his execution was approved by Calvin.



MOUNT CENIS TUNNEL.

The Swiss have always been good soldiers. One of the most brilliant victories of history was their triumph over the Austrians at the battle of Morgarten, in 1313. It has well been called the Thermopylæ of Switzerland. Their bravery, reinforced by the admirable natural facilities for defense, has protected them from conquest. For a long time now the great powers of Europe have abandoned all idea of interference with Switzerland. The French Revolutionists attempted to regulate the affairs of those cantons, but the Congress of Vienna (1815) acknowledged and guaranteed the independence of the Swiss. Each canton has its own constitution and local self-government, and three of the cantons

are divided each into two states. "Their constitutions," says Niemann, "range from purely democratic to perfectly representative systems, but each constitution must be sanctioned by the federal assembly before it can come into force. The ecclesiastical authorities in the Reformed church are the synods, assemblies of the whole clergy; and at their side stands in each canton, as the highest administrative authority, an ecclesiastical council—in Geneva a consistory." The Roman Catholic church has five bishopries.

Any person eligible to the assembly is also eligible to the council and the presidency. There is also a federal court, having jurisdiction over all cases arising between the confederation and the canton, between canton and canton, also between the government, federal or local, on the one side and an individual or a corporation on the other.

The country has three universities, Bern, Zurich, and Basle; and three professional schools of eminence, Geneva and Lausanne theological seminaries and law schools, and the law school at Freiburg.

VIEW OF ZURICH.

The central government has a constitution which has undergone many changes. The present organic law of the confederation dates from 1874. The congress of Switzerland, the federal assembly, consists of a national council with one member for every 20,000 inhabitants, and the council of states, corresponding to our national senate. There is a federal council exercising executive functions, composed of seven members, elected by the federal assembly. The president of that council, chosen annually by the council itself, is president of the Confederation. The president is not eligible to re-election until after the lapse of a year from the expiration of his term.

Watch-making is the chief industry in Switzerland.

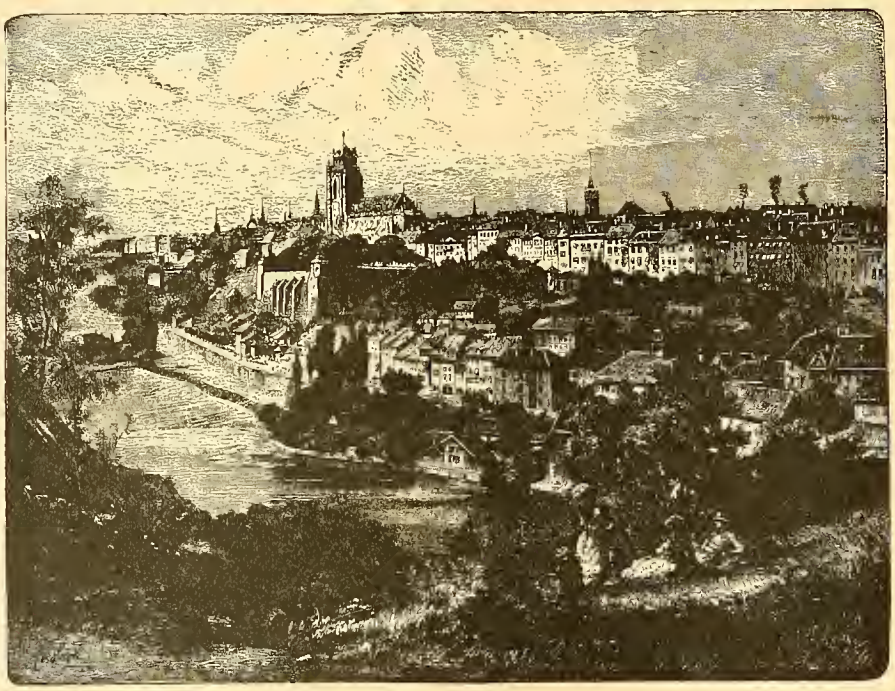
It remains to speak of the Republics of Andorra and San Marino, also the Principalities of Monaco, Pomerania, Servia and Montenegro.

Andorra is the name of a valley and a republic which nestles like an eagle's eyre far up among the mountains. It is situated among the Eastern Pyrenees, between the French department of Ariege and the Spanish province of Lerida. Ever since the days of Charlemagne it has been independent, forming a line of demarkation between Spain and France. There were not more than 12,000 inhabitants by the latest census. They are very primitive, kindly and

hospitable mountaineers. The area of the republic is 149 square miles. The government is entrusted to twenty-four consuls. There is nothing worthy of note in the history of Andorra.

San Marino is at once the oldest and smallest republic in the world. The area is 22 square miles, the population a little less than 10,000. There are five villages within its narrow limits. The largest has the same name as the republic, and is the capital. San Marino is situated in eastern central Italy. It dates back to the fourth century when St. Marinus, a pious stone-mason, fled thither with a few followers to escape the Diocletian persecution. The country has some good pasturage, and produces fruit, silk-worms and wine. San Marino is the paradise of officeholders. Its little army of 819 men has 131 officers, and the political affairs of the republic are intrusted to a senate consisting of sixty life members, an executive counsel of twelve, elected annually, and two presidents, elected for six months. This has been the form of government since 1847.

Although San Marino is the smallest of republics, it is not the least among the nations. That distinction belongs to Monaco, which is as independent as if it were the first power on the globe. Monaco is a village of less than two thousand inhabitants. With its surrounding territory it has an area of six square miles, the total population being 3,127. It is situated on a high promontory in the Gulf of Genoa. It has two claims to distinction. As a watering-place its mild climate makes it a resort for consumptives and other invalids. But its chief notoriety is due to the fact that it is a legalized gambling-place, famous the world over for the extent, variety, and openness of its games. Professional gamesters and respectable tourists are there found upon a common level, the former habitues, the latter constantly coming and going, the players of to-day being for the most part different persons from those of yesterday. What is done with more or less secrecy in the rest of the world may be called the sole employment and industry at Monaco. Speaking on this subject, a recent writer says that the Prince receives about $350,000 per annum for allowing the gambling to be conducted within his principality, and that the



BERNE

present prince is entirely under the influence of the Jesuits. This least country of Europe is great only as an evil. The Prince resides in Paris.

Roumania was formed as a province of Turkey in 1861, out of the union of two minor principalities, Wallachia and Moldavia. The representatives of the people met at the capital, Bucharest, May 21, 1877, and proclaimed absolute independence of Turkey. The Berlin Congress, in the following year, confirmed the proclamation. Its area is 48,307 square miles; population something over 5,000,000. Bucharest is a city of over 220,000 inhabitants. The people are, for the most part, Greek Christians. The government is an elective and strictly limited constitutional principality. The present prince is Karl I.

Servia gained independence of Turkey at the same time and in the same way as Roumania. It was virtually free, however, as early as 1829. The present prince, Milan II., is the fourth of his dynasty, the house having been founded by Milos, leader in the Servian war against Turkey, which lasted from 1815 to 1829. The Servians are Slavs, of the Greek church, except in a small district mainly peopled by Mohammedans. The area of Servia is 20,850 square miles; population nearly 2,000,000. The country and the people are wild and rude. The government is similar in form to that of Roumania. Belgrade is the capital, with a population of less than 30,000.

Montenegro is a small and barbaric principality near the Adriatic sea, serving as a wall between Turkey and Austria, the Moslem and the Christian. The Turk was never able to subdue the Montenegrins, who are a tribe of Servians intensely devoted to the Greek church. The population is not over 250,000, but the Prince, or Hospodar, can raise an army of 20,000 at any time, especially if the object is to war upon the Turks. Russia has often found great advantage in Montenegrin sympathy. The reigning prince is Nicholas I. The country has a constitution of the modern sort. By the treaty of Berlin, Montenegro gained from Turkey the town and district of Dulcigno, on the Adriatic, which surrender was not actually made until 1880, and then only under the pressure of the great powers. The area of this principality is 3,550 square miles. The country has neither roads nor villages. Forests abound, and acorn-fed swine are the chief source of revenue. The agriculture is carried on, the little there is of it, in a very primitive way, and that almost wholly by women. It may be added that the same is true as regards women and agriculture, only in a less degree, of the entire continent of Europe.

OLD ENGLAND.

CHAPTER LV.

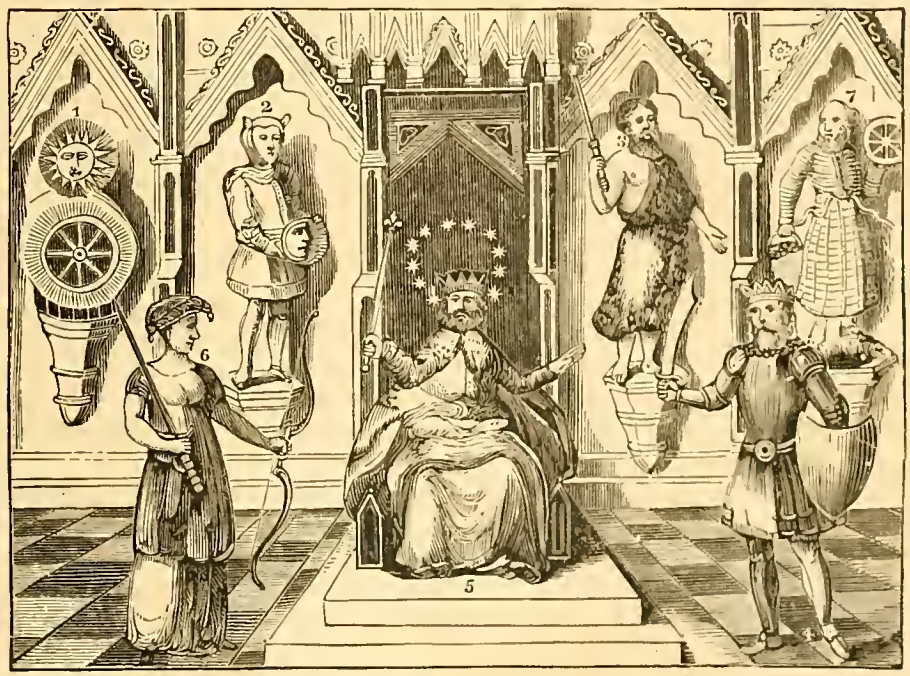
English Greatness—National Terms—Early Britons—Julius Cæsar in Britain—The Druids—Roman Conquest of the Island—Independence—Advent of the Anglo-Saxon—Christian Evangelization—Irish and Roman Church Influences—Synod of Whitby—Danish Incursion—Alfred the Great—Canute and the Anglicization of the Danes—Dunstan—Edward the Confessor—The Norman Invasion—Harold and William—Battle of Hastings—The Conquest of England—Domesday Book and Realty—Henry I.

WITH this chapter begins the history of the most remarkable people in the world, historical or actual. Besides the mother country, great in itself, is that Greater Britain, which includes the United States. This republic is indeed peopled by the representatives of many lands, still it forms one mighty nation, speaking the English language, inheriting its traditions, and governed in great part by its common law. Restricted and insular as is the term England, it is certain that the word *English* is the most comprehensive term in any speech, besides having in it the promise of a still more vast future. England, Scotland and Wales constitute one island, Great Britain; and by "the British Isles" is meant not only that island, but Ireland and the minor specks of land in the adjacent waters, subject to the British crown. The proper designation of all those islands, in a political point of view is the United Kingdom. The term British Empire is much broader, including as it does all the outlying possessions under the rule of the English crown and the British constitution, and upon which, literally speaking, the sun never sets. As the Roman Empire was the growth and outgrowth of the city of Rome, so the British Empire is the growth and outgrowth of England, a country of hardly more than fifty thousand square miles. In

Cæsar Landing in Britain.

a semi-historical, half-poetical way the country is sometimes designated Albion, sometimes Britannia, or Britain.

The original inhabitants of the country were Britons, from whom the present Welsh claim descent. Celts and Piets, hardly distinguishable from the the Britons, may fairly be classed among the first settlers of Great Britain, as well as England proper. In the ancient world that part of the globe bore no important part. The Phœnicians are supposed to have been the first to pass the pillars of Hereules, and discover the great island of the North Atlantic. Learning of the existence of the rich tin mines of Cornwall, they carried on quite an extensive trade with the Cornish miners. But it was not until the eagle eye of Julius Cæsar looked across the channel and conceived the purpose of annexing Britain to the Roman Empire that it really became a part of the historical world. He crossed the straits of Dover in B. C. 55. His commentaries give a somewhat glowing account of the people and of their progress towards civilization. Of their religion, Druidism, he wrote, "They teach that the soul is imperishable, passing at death into another body. They consider this belief a potent incentive to bravery in battle, removing as it does the fear of death." The priests were called Druids, and they were not only ministers of religion, but also ministers of justice, and in general the intellectual aristocracy of the country. The religious rites observed were horrible, for they practiced human sacrifice, sometimes immolating many victims at one time.



SAXON DIVINITIES FORMERLY WORSHIPED IN BRITAIN.

1. Sunday. 2. Monday. 3. Tuesday. 4. Wednesday. 5. Thursday. 6. Friday. 7. Saturday.

Julius Cæsar crossed to England twice during his Gallic and Germanic Wars, but he did little more than to gain and disseminate information about the country. It was in A. D. 43, that England was really annexed to the empire. The attacking army was first led by Plautius, but soon the Emperor Claudius himself appeared upon the scene. When he returned to the continent Vespasian (afterwards emperor) was left in command. The islanders defended themselves with bravery, but of course they were impotent as against such an enemy as Rome at the zenith of its power. About twenty years elapsed when a rebellion broke out. The leader of the Britons was Boadicea, queen of one of the tribes or counties of Britain. This brave woman rallied the natives to her standard of revolt, regardless of tribal fealty, and she gained some very considerable successes. She took London, then as ever the chief city of the island, and laid it in ashes. But the Romans rallied their forces, and in a decisive battle slew no less than eighty thousand Britons. Seeing that all was lost, the gallant Boadicea committed suicide by taking poison.

In A. D. 78, Agricola was sent to Britain, com-

missioned to complete the conquest of the island and then to undertake in a thorough and humane way to civilize the people. They were not far behind their conquerors in civilization even then. He was so far successful that a very considerable part of England was made thoroughly loyal to the Roman Emperors. The intractable and irreconcilable took refuge in Wales, Scotland or the north countries. It was a difficult task to hold the rude outside barbarians in check and protect Romish England from predatory incursions. Large forts were built and great walls along the friths of Forth and Solway. Towns sprang up in which Latin was spoken, and the literature of that language was read. Classic mythology largely supplanted Druidical barbarity. Gradually the island grew in favor and importance. Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great, was a Briton. She was also a Christian. The introduction of Christianity occurred early in the present era, but just when and by whom the first seeds were sown is uncertain. It was upon English soil and by British soldiers that the first Christian emperor, Constantine, was proclaimed emperor. The Emperor Honorius released the Britons from imperial allegiance. That was in 410. A few months later Alaric entered Rome in triumph, and the Empire of the West fell. The most western portion of it, however, may be said to have escaped the humiliation of Gothic conquest by having first been set free from the yoke of Rome.

Independence of the empire was a dubious blessing. The Scots and Picts of Scotland and Wales made themselves very troublesome. London, York and Lincoln, more Roman than British, could not defend themselves from the rude barbarians. The townsfolk were wealthy and cultivated, but their wealth seemed to draw upon them despoiling enemies, and culture was no match for brute force. Their condition soon became unendurable. Before the fifth century was half gone, they felt compelled to seek protection from without. In their distress they applied to the sea-rovers of Scandinavia, and the cry for help was heard, the prayer for succor answered, but not in the spirit of kindness. It was the wolf and the lamb.

In 449 Britain became England, or, rather, the transformation began then. It occurred in this wise: In response to the call for help the Angles of Schleswig, and the Saxons of Holstein, with some Jutes from Jutland, crossed the angry waters between their land and the fair island of distress south of them. The event seemed trivial in importance, but it proved of the most far-reaching consequence. Much of the blood of the Britons courses in British veins to-day; but the language and national characteristics of the people are almost wholly Anglo-Saxon.

The religious and other institutions of the Britons were obliterated from the country. There were several petty kingdoms and much dissension among the new comers; but they were so far harmonious that they succeeded in destroying the cities, churches, schools and agricultural improvements of the Romanized Britons and holding in awe the savages beyond the border. Essex and Wessex, Bercia and Deira, were the names of those kingdoms, with a fifth, Mercia, more powerful than any of the rest. The people were divided into two classes, earls and churls. The former held land and were the aristocracy; the latter were the peasant class. A prominent feature of those times was local self-government. The villages and towns, for the most part, governed themselves. The town rulers were called ealdermen or aldermen. The Britons, properly so called, never again exercised any very considerable influence over the affairs of that island. The name of England soon became and remained entirely appropriate. The chief wars which followed were waged by different branches of the Anglican family, or its near kinsfolk.

Late in the sixth century some of these Anglo-Saxons appeared in the slave market at Rome, and attracted the attention of that eminent pope, Gregory the Great. Finding whence they came, and that the gods of Scandinavia were worshiped there, albeit the Cross had once flourished in Briton, he resolved to evangelize the English. St. Augustine of Rome (not the supremely eminent saint of that name) was delegated to the important task. That was in 597. The first convert was the King, or Earl of Kent, Ethelbert. His wife was a Christian Frank. The first English bishopric was established at Canterbury. Thirty years later, Edwin of Northumbria accepted the new faith. He was the founder of Edwinsburg or Edinburgh. In 633 the kingdom of Mercia undertook the championship of the old faith. Many a bloody war was waged in the cause of these rival religions. In 680 all England became

Christian. This complete triumph of Jesus over Thor was largely due to the intelligence and zeal of missionaries from Ireland. The latter island was far more civilized than England a thousand years ago. Schools and churches flourished, and the Irish church of that day had no connection with Rome. It was somewhat in rivalry with it, especially as regards spiritual authority in England. It became necessary to convoke a synod to determine which the English church should ally itself with, the Irish or the Roman church. That council, the Synod of Whitby, met in 664, and its decision was in favor of Rome. The great royal champion of Rome, Egbert, King of Wessex, succeeded in conquering all England. He belonged to the first years of the ninth century, and was a cotemporary of Charlemagne. Egbert may be said to have founded the English crown, and was thirty-six degrees removed from Queen Victoria by lineal descent, or rather ascent.

AUGUSTINE PREACHING TO ETHELBERT.

We must now turn back to a great crisis which arose in English affairs in the eighth century. This was the incursion of the Danes. Those powerful and adventurous Norsemen were tempted to invade England by the thrift of the island under its Anglican masters. A very considerable civilization had grown up, and where Roman towns had been razed to the ground in whole or part, new cities had come to attest a renewed prosperity. In scholarship and letters the Venerable Bede won a high place by his learning and genius as early as the eighth century. The England of the original English had gradually attained to a fair degree of national unity and enlightenment when the disturbing element from Denmark was introduced into the country. That portion of the island which was English without being directly and originally subject to Wessex, did not seriously object to a change of sovereignty. After a contest of nearly a century the Danes succeeded in establishing themselves in the eastern part of the island, but they made no marked impression upon the future of the country.

In the year 871 Alfred the Great succeeded to the throne. His reign extended to the second year of the tenth century. Those thirty years were especially memorable, for small as was his kingdom,

Alfred better deserved the title of Great than did any other medieval sovereign unless it be Charlemagne. During the first of his reign he was in constant warfare with the Danes, succeeding in narrowing their area and subjecting them to a degree of vassalage. One battle, however, proved a brilliant Danish victory, and the king was obliged to take refuge in disguise. It was during that period of eclipse that he served as house-servant, and was whipped for letting the bread burn. But he soon rallied his forces and regained his losses. Alfred was a skillful, brave and powerful warrior. His real claim to greatness rests, however, on his statesmanship and his zeal for learning. He was the most civilized ruler of the age. The laws were reformed, more especially in their administration, and schools established. Alfred was the founder of the British navy, and the especial patron of strictly English literature, to which he made valuable personal contributions. He was especially eager to advance popular education. He translated several works from the Latin into English. These were mainly historical. His palace-schools for the instruction of the sons of the nobility, may be said to have laid the corner-stone of university education in England.

ALFRED THE GREAT.

The next British sovereign of note was Canute the Dane. His reign was from 1016 to 1035. From vassalage to the Saxon crown he rose to supremacy over both the English and the Danes of the island. His policy was to harmonize the people, and he treated the English with justice. On his mother's side Canute could boast descent from Alfred. With him the distinctive mark of Denmark was obliterated forever from Britain, for albeit a Dane, he was in spirit a thorough Englishman. Alfred's son, Edward the Elder, was the first to take the title of King of England, but the England of Canute was a step in advance, for it merged into one (with the English as the one) the two Scandinavian elements of the people. He was the only great sovereign the land enjoyed from Alfred to William of Normandy, but not the only great ruler, for Dunstan, although a subject, ruled the destinies of England under several kings, and was a man worthy of the highest honor and deathless gratitude. The kings under whom Dunstan flourished were Edmund I., Edred, Edwy, and Edgar, the period covered being from 940 to 975. A devout monk with a passionate fondness for music, poetry and literature, he was none the less a man of affairs. His aim was to make England united and great. The kings with whom he had to do could not appreciate him, and his labors were made doubly arduous by their imbecility. It must be conceded that Dunstan was somewhat hampered as a reformer by superstition, and he weakened his influence for good by zeal for ecclesiastical regulations, especially clerical celibacy. He did much, however, to improve the laws and encourage education, herein nobly supplementing the work of Alfred.

WILLIAM I.

From Canute to William was a swift descent. A few troublous years succeeded the death of the great Dane, when Edward the Confessor came to the throne. His early life had been spent at the court of Normandy, and he was more Norman than English in his tastes and ideas. During the twenty-four years of his reign (1042 to 1066) the higher offices of the government were largely filled with foreign-

ers. Weak in mind, he was swayed by others. Fortunately there was one patriotic Englishman who exerted a powerful influence over him, Godwin, earl of Wessex, and after him his son Harold. It was during this reign that Scotland was the scene of those bloody deeds made immortal in the drama of Macbeth, and England's part in the overthrow of that foul traitor is fairly set forth by Shakspeare. And it may well be remarked here that the historical plays of that supreme genius are of incalculable value from the standpoint of British history, affording as they do wonderful insight into the spirit of the times. But Edward's most memorable act was not succoring Malcolm of Scotland. It was bestowing his kingdom upon his cousin William of Normandy. Such was his partiality for the Normans that he wished to be succeeded by one of their number. At least William himself set up this claim, and not without some show of truth. However, in his last hours Edward bestowed the crown upon Earl Harold, son of Godwin, but, unfortunately, the latter had once been shipwrecked upon the Norman coast, and while held a prisoner he signed a complete renunciation of all claim to the English crown in favor of Duke William. When, therefore, Harold came to the throne William demanded compliance with the promise made. The Saxon persisted that the pledge was exacted of him under duress and was not binding. William thereupon gathered his forces and invaded England. The battle of Hastings was the result. That battle occurred in 1066. In it Harold was slain and his army put to utter rout. The Saxon cause was lost, irrevocably. What the folly of Edward the Confessor had begun the sword of William the Conqueror finished.

BATTLE OF HASTINGS, DEATH OF HAROLD.

We have now seen the Briton give place to the Anglo-Saxon, and the latter assimilate the Dane, and now still another element was introduced into the English race, the last of all, for the Norman was the final really foreign ingredient in the strictly English blood. In the task of making one people out of many England has shown a wonderful power, and the work of assimilation is still going on in other parts of the British islands, especially in Scotland; but the Saxons who were so ingloriously conquered at Hastings have proved the real masters of the situation. Notwithstanding the political change made, England remained English, and the Norman, like the Dane, gradually lost his identity, merged in that of the descendants of the Angles, the Jutes and the Saxons. It is necessary to bear these general facts in mind, as a safeguard against being deceived as to the actual importance of the Norman conquest.

It was not the battle of Hastings and what immediately followed which constitutes the Conquest. So complete was that initial victory that William's right to the crown of England was at once conceded. On Christmas-day of that same year (1066) occurred his coronation at Westminster Abbey, the Archbishop of

York officiating. The new king professed great respect for the laws of England, and was rather lenient in his treatment of the vanquished. After a few months, during which all went smoothly, William returned to his Duchy of Normandy, to look after his affairs there. Hardly had he sailed away when the spirit of insubordination manifested itself, and it became evident that the battle of Hastings had not really subdued the nation. The duke returned with all the force he could command, and then began a long, bitter and desolating war. Inch by inch William conquered England, and terrible was his revenge upon those whom he branded as rebels. Frightful tales of horror are told, and large tracts of cultivated fields were utterly devastated, the slaughter of the people being ruthless. These waste places he maintained as hunting grounds. Game laws were introduced for the preservation of wild beasts at the expense of the conquered Saxons, that the conquerors might have the pleasure of killing. The people, to a large extent, were reduced to a state of serfage little better than downright slavery.

To render the conquest more secure, William caused his English kingdom to be surveyed, and a record to be made of the survey. That record is called *Domes-day Book*, and detestable as was its origin and object, it may be called the beginning of an incalculably important system of land records. The present practice of keeping public records of all real estate titles is of quite recent introduction, still, the fundamental idea of the system is found in that vestige of the Norman conquest. The lands taken from the vanquished Saxons were either retained or parceled out among the barons from Normandy. To a very large extent the present English titles to lands are traced back to the Conquest. The king did not bestow those estates absolutely, or in *fee simple*, but conditionally, on the feudal plan. If the landholder or his heirs, failed to render satisfactory service to the crown, the land itself could be reclaimed by a decree of forfeiture, or *escheat*. It follows that the landed property of England could now be largely redistributed by law without the violation of any "vested right" or infringement upon the British constitution. Possibly the land tenure system introduced by William may eventually prove the lever of a most radical reform in English realty.

William was a man of war apart from his campaigns in England, but his continental struggles were not important, and he was not a really potent factor in the affairs of France, to which his duchy belonged. While engaged in devastating the town of Nantes, belonging to his liege lord, Philip of France, he was thrown from his horse and killed. His death made glad the hearts of his subjects. He had even quarreled with his own sons, and the elder, Robert, had raised the standard of revolt. In the struggle that followed William came very near being slain by the sword of his own son. He was overthrown, but filial regard saved his life.

When the career of William came to an end, Robert inherited Normandy and his brother William Rufus, England. To a third brother, Henry, was bequeathed the maternal fortune, which was very considerable, but no part of either the kingdom or the duchy. About this time the Crusades began, and Robert mortgaged his duchy to Rufus to raise money to join the expedition for the rescue of the Holy Sepulcher. While the Knight of the Cross was in "Paynim land" his royal brother was accidentally killed in the chase, and Henry at once claimed both England and Normandy. There was none to dispute his claim, until Robert's return, and then it was too late. Henry I. held fast to both possessions, being a skillful politician, a brave soldier and an unnatural brother. Robert died in prison. This first of the Henrys reigned thirty-six years. He was called *Beauclerc*, or "the good scholar." Under him the country made some progress, but not much, and almost none at all under his successor, Stephen, a grandson of William the Conqueror, his mother being Adelé, Countess of Blois. For twenty years Stephen kept the land in a state of anarchy and misery. The crown really belonged to Henry's daughter, Maude, who had been the wife of the German Emperor, Henry V., and later of Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, but the English of that day did not take kindly to the idea of a queen, and Maude was singularly destitute of tact. After several ineffectual attempts to gain the crown, she retired to a convent and ended her days as a pious nun. The basis of the compromise was the agreement that Stephen should wear the crown until death when Henry, the son of Maude and Geoffrey, should succeed him, an arrangement which was carried out in good faith. The death of Stephen occurred in 1154, and the accession of Henry II. proved the beginning of a new series of events.

OLD ENGLAND AND THE PLANTAGENETS.

CHAPTER LVI.

THE SPRAY OF BROOM-BLOSSOM—THOMAS A BECKET—STRONGBOW AND IRISH SUBJUGATION—THE ONE ENGLISH POPE OF ROME—THE SORROWS OF HENRY II.—RICHARD CŒUR DE LEON—KING JOHN AND MAGNA CHARTA—HENRY III. AND PARLIAMENT—PRINCE EDWARD AND THE BARONS—ROGER BACON THE MEDIEVAL SCIENTIST—THE TWO BACONS COMPARED—WESTMINSTER ABBEY—ARCHITECTURE AND FREEMASONRY—RETROSPECT OF OLD ENGLAND.

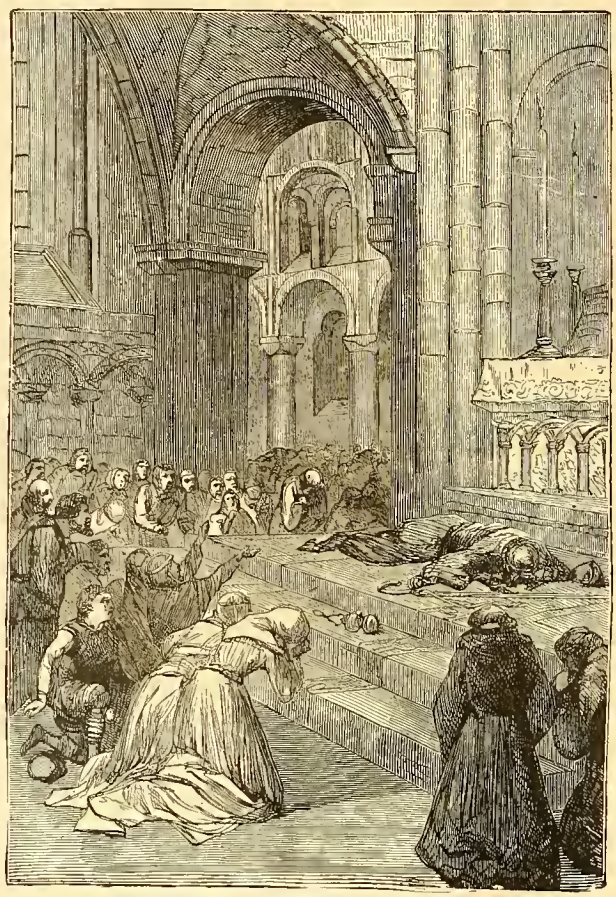
WITH the coronation of Henry II. begins the rule of the Plantagenets, sometimes called the Angevine dynasty of English kings. The Plantagenets held the scepter from 1154 to 1485, or until the battle of Bosworth gave the ascendancy to the Tudors. The Dukes of Buckingham and Chandos continue to call themselves Plantagenets. The term originated in the fact that Henry's father, Geoffrey of Anjou, was accustomed to wear a spray of broom-blossom in his hat, the French name for which is *genet*. It is not proposed in this chapter to follow the course of history to the Tudors, but only to the accession of the first Edward, whose broad statesmanship raised the nation into so much more prominence than the dynasty, that he constitutes a great landmark in English history.

Henry had extensive continental possessions. Besides the dukedoms of Anjou and Normandy, he was, through his queen, Eleanor, Lord of Aquitaine. The three possessions constituted about one-half of the present France. The first notable reform which he introduced was a well-directed blow at the clergy. Hitherto a priest was amenable only to an ecclesiastical tribunal, however heinous his crime, but he abolished this unjust "benefit of clergy." Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, the first Englishman since the Conquest to hold that high office, refused to obey the law. He appealed to the pope and took refuge at the French court. The pope espoused the cause of the clergy and threatened the king with excommunication, but he stood firm. A partial reconciliation was finally effected, and Becket returned to the see of Canterbury. That was in 1170. The archbishop showed no disposition to obey the law. The result was that four barons, at the instigation of the king, assassinated him. Three years later he was canonized, and his shrine at Canterbury has ever since been a

STRONGBOW.

sacred spot to those who sympathize with his views of clerical independence of secular law and justice. To allay the tempest raised by the ecclesiastics, Henry consented to do penance at the shrine of the "martyr" after he was sainted.

It was during the reign of Henry II. that England gained her first foothold in Ireland. The Earl of Pembroke, called "Strongbow," led an army of his own immediate following across St. George's Channel and carved out for himself a petty kingdom which he claimed to hold in the name of the British sovereign. The foothold thus gained was the Province of Leinster. From that time to date England has asserted a fictitious claim to rule a people persistently unreconciled to any interference with home rule. That usurpation dates from 1172. The reign of Henry the Second continued forty years, during which time much was done, besides the abridgment of clerical authority, to correct abuses. The rights of the barons were respected, while their arrogance was restricted. It is safe to say that the principles of justice found more recognition in him than in any ruler of that century. He was also a patron of learning. It may be remarked that it was about this time that Nicholas Breakspear, an English prelate, was made pope, being the only Englishman to hold the keys of St. Peter. He took the name of Adrian IV. Henry had enough Saxon blood in his veins to be satisfactory to that element of the people. With the Norman barons he was less popular. His reign was largely a struggle for the curtailment of baronial power. It was under him that the august judicial system, or, as Green calls it, "the fabric of English judicial legislation," commenced, and a glimpse is afforded of the great charter granted by his son John. His reign was an education, preparatory to the supreme event at Runnymede, of which we are presently to hear.



MURDER OF THOMAS A BECKET.

This great king died with the clouds of adversity thick and thickening about his head. His two elder sons were dead, and the remaining two, Richard and John, engaged in a plot against their royal father, whose last days were filled with sadness.

The older of the two sons of Henry II. is known in history as Richard Cœur de Leon (Richard of the Lion Heart). He was a brave Crusader. Many a romantic story is told of his personal prowess. With a touch of poetry in his nature, he was a great patron of minstrels and troubadours. But apart from the glamour of romance, Richard lives in history as a royal knight-errant, and that is about all.

The younger brother, John, who succeeded to the crown in 1199 and wore it until 1216, was treacherous and despicable, yet sagacious and brave. He was a great general, a powerful king, but he is best known for something which he was forced to do in spite of himself, and to which he never intended to be faithful. We refer to the Great Charter, or Magna Charta, wrung from him by the barons of the realm at Runnymede. John is sometimes called

Lackland. His reign extended from 1199 to 1216. The charter was signed June 19, 1215. It was in effect a royal pledge to respect the rights of the barons, the clergy and the people. That truly august document constitutes the fundamental part of the British constitution. A council of the clergy and the nobility was held two years before the charter was signed, for the purpose of devising ways and means to secure that safeguard against royal usurpation. Cardinal Langton fairly earned the honor of organizing this important victory over absolutism. For once the church was on the side of progress and liberty. The king had the support of the pope, Innocent III., but Langton persisted in his patriotic purpose. The charter as originally signed by King John contained sixty-one articles. It was frequently renewed with additions by subsequent sovereigns. The right of trial by a jury of one's equals, or peers, is, perhaps, the most important guaranty of the entire charter. No taxation without the consent of the taxed was another great principle, and one which developed into the right of the House of Commons in England and the House of Representatives in the United States to originate all revenue bills.

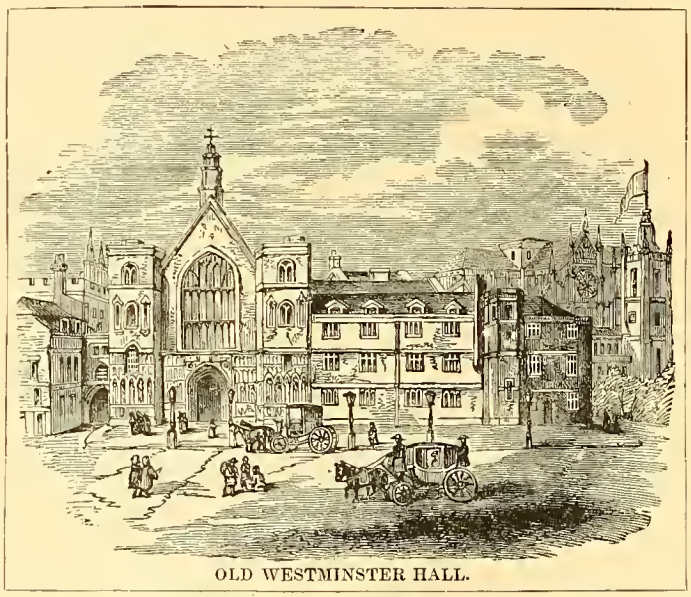
RICHARD CŒUR DE LEON.

Notwithstanding the fact that King John was a very brave and able man, he not only failed utterly to hold in check his English subjects, but he lost the dukedom of Normandy, which was seized by the French king, and henceforth the title became extinct. His reign was singularly inglorious, and his name is exceptionally infamous in royal annals. But had the one notable act of his life been voluntary, it would have made him to the English people much what Abraham Lincoln is to the colored people of America. As it was, he neither received nor deserved the slightest credit for affixing the royal sign manual to the charter.

The death of this baffled despot left the crown to his son, Henry, then only eight years of age. For three years the kingdom was ruled by a regent of patriotism and statesmanship, Earl Pembroke. The king was declared of age when sixteen years old (1223), taking the title of Henry III. It was during his reign that the great council of the nation became known as the parliament, and began to assume its proper function as the really supreme authority in the land. Henry was a weak king, and that fact was fortunate for the nation. It was farther fortunate that he was a spendthrift. He needed money, and had to apply to parliament for appropriations. Every application, whether granted or denied, served to emphasize the parliamentary jurisdiction. But the church of Rome was quite as eager to take advantage of Henry's imbecility as the people were, and during this reign ecclesiastical usurpation made considerable headway. Parliament showed a pitiful incapacity for government. For many years the country was in a state bordering on anarchy. The reign of this king extended from 1216 to 1272. The nobility seemed infatuated with a sense of their own importance, and finally, in 1264, they deprived the king of all authority, holding him and his family, with one exception, prisoners. That exception was Edward. This prince was a brave and able man, and a good son. After a long struggle he succeeded in breaking the power of the barons and restoring his father to the throne. The leader of the barons was Earl Leicester. In itself considered, the Barons' War could not be commended, but out of it grew the House of Commons, or borough representation, and when the smoke of the conflict had rolled away it was found that immense progress had been made.

The chief interest of that long reign was not the clash of arms, but the increase of intelligence. It was during that period that Roger Bacon flourished, a friar with an appreciation of science worthy the nineteenth century. He was so very far ahead of

his times that he was almost forgotten centuries before he was understood. He was a voice crying in the wilderness of ignorance, pleading for knowledge, awakening, however, hardly an echo of sympathy. Oxford was the seat of learning where he labored with the greatest assiduity to serve the cause of learning. It was during the reign of Henry III. that the English universities began to be recognized centers of influence. The Crusades had stimulated zeal for knowledge, the barbaric West having come in contact with the more civilized Saracens. From the schools of Cordova and Bagdad came incentives to a higher education than the Christians of the Dark Ages had known. In all this England had its full share, and Roger Bacon deserves the honor therefor. His just rank is quite as high as was that of his more illustrious namesake, Francis Bacon, only the latter lived at a time when the seed sown fell upon fallow ground, and bore much fruit. Of *Opus Magus* of the elder Bacon and the *Novum Organum* of the younger Bacon it might well be said, "unlike, but not unequal." Both were written in Latin, the English being considered as an utterly unfit vehicle of literature. It was not until the next century that anything of intrinsic merit was contributed to literature in the English language. Roger Bacon was more concerned with the essence of things than with their form, with science than with literature. To learning he added invention. The telescope, microscope, spectacles, and many astronomical and mathematical instruments, have been claimed to be his invention; so also is gunpowder. Whether he actually invented or only introduced these appliances of civilization, he certainly deserves great credit for trying to inaugurate a better state of affairs. He tried to substitute astronomy for astrology, chemistry for alchemy.



OLD WESTMINSTER HALL.

Westminster Abbey dates from this reign. A church was built upon that site by Edward the Confessor, but the present edifice belongs to the reign of the third Henry. It is there that the sovereigns of England receive coronation, and beneath its pavements many of them have found sepulcher. Very many of the more eminent men of England were either buried there or have had monuments erected or tablets ascribed to their honor in that august abbey. Kings, statesmen, soldiers, poets and explorers there find a common place of association.

Some progress was made during this reign in art. Many manuscript books, elaborately illuminated or painted, are still extant, showing very considerable skill with the brush. Architecture received much attention, especially the Gothic style of structure. Masonry acquired a marked prominence during that period. These masons were free men. The greater part of the labor of that day was performed by slaves or serfs, who were bought and sold like cattle. British commerce can hardly be said to have existed, the foreign traffic of the island being in the hands of the Hanseatic League, or Free Cities of Germany.

During the period now traversed England cannot be said to have contributed much to the improvement of mankind, beyond giving proof of an advanced idea of civil liberty. Night has rested upon the nation, but the star of Runnymede is the harbinger of dawn. A turning-point has been reached, a fork in the road of history.

The Plantagenets continue to sit upon the throne, but the betterment of the kingdom, as a whole, has gone on until at this stage of national development Old England may be said to disappear.

MODERN ENGLAND AND THE PLANTAGENETS.

CHAPTER LVII

MODERN ENGLAND—THE AMBITION OF EDWARD I.—CONQUEST OF WALES—LLEWELLEN, AND THE WELSH POLICY OF EDWARD—PRINCE OF WALES—ARTHURIAN LEGENDS—TEMPORARY SUBJECTION OF SCOTLAND—WILLIAM WALLACE—ROBERT BRUCE—THE DEATH OF EDWARD I. AND SCOTCH INDEPENDENCE—THE CHIEF GLORY OF THE FIRST EDWARD—TREATMENT OF THE JEWS—EDWARD II.—EDWARD III.—THE FRENCH WAR AND THE BLACK PRINCE—GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE EDWARDIAN AGE—GEOFFREY CHAUCER—JOHN WYCLIFFE—THE BLACK PLAGUE—RICHARD II. AND WAT TYLER—THE LAST OF THE PLANTAGENETS.

"WITH the reign of Edward," says Green, "begins Modern England." This epoch is unmarked by any revolutionary cataclysm. "From that time," he explains, "kings, lords, commons, the courts of justice, the forms of public administration, local division and provincial jurisdictions, the relations of church and state, in great measure the framework of society itself, have all taken the shape which they still essentially retain." For more than half a century all connection with Normandy had ceased, and long before that, fear of any further incursions of barbaric hordes from the North had disappeared. French was the language of government and Latin of literature, but the people clung tenaciously to English, a tenacity which was destined to triumph completely. The age of the three Edwards was a grand epoch in England's greatness.

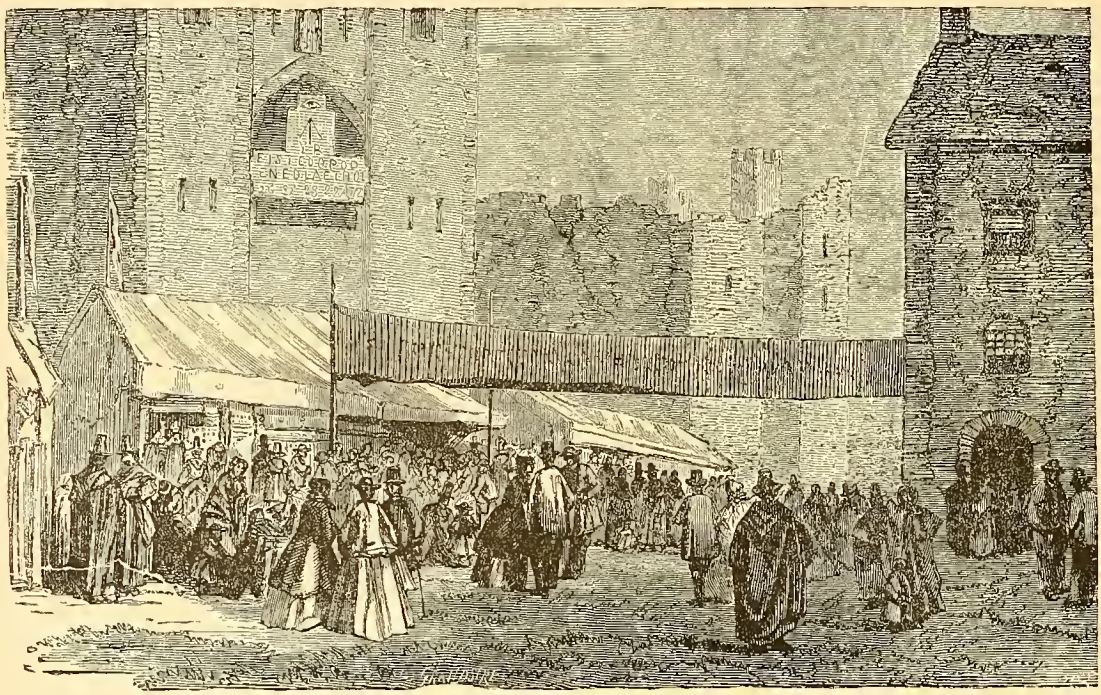
When the troublous and long reign of Henry III. closed, Edward I. was fighting the Moslem. Upon learning his father's death he returned home. His first thought was to have a reckoning with the landed aristocracy, many of whom were enjoying possessions not vested in them by provable title. But he soon abandoned that idea. Any such "new version" of Domesday Book would arouse a tempest, and he did not care to inaugurate another "Barons' War." Wisely reconsidering his initial purpose, he changed his plan, and selected as his line of policy the subjugation of the original Britons who had taken refuge in the mountains of the west and north. No thought of recovering lost territory on the continent was entertained. He aspired to rule the entire island. He succeeded in the west and failed in the north, but he none the less foreshadowed English destiny, as regards Great Britain.

The Welsh were not an easy people to conquer. Brave of heart, they had the advantage of almost impregnable natural fortifications. The mountains of Wales are admirably adapted to a defensive war. The Welsh were often at war among themselves, being divided into numerous clans, but they were none the less quick to unite for the repulsion of a common danger. They were troublesome neighbors. Descended as they were from the original proprietors of English soil, they thought it no crime to make reprisals. Often they would descend in predatory bands and pillage the adjacent country. The

subjugation of Wales came to be regarded as a national necessity. The nursery rhyme "Taffy was a Welshman, Taffy was a thief," which is familiar to English-speaking children to this day, may be set down as a waif from Old England, a vestige of a prejudice which once rested on a solid foundation. Edward I. set about the annexation of those mountaineers in right good earnest.

The leader of the Welsh forces was the bold and chivalric Llewellyn ap Griffith. Edward marched into the retreat of the Cymry and the "fabric of Welsh greatness fell at a single blow,"—fell, however, to rise again, and for four years the British lion was held at bay by the last real Prince of Wales. The king was obliged to surround Llewellyn and gradually close in upon him. The bold prince fell in battle, and Wales was annexed to England in 1282, substantially as now. The king adopted a liberal policy, treating the people with just liberality. By the "Statute of Wales," the more barbarous customs of the country were abolished, the English jurisprudence adopted, trade guilds in the towns established, and local rights protected. The people were allowed to hold fast to their original language and maintain their distinctive characteristics, which they do to this day. Their language is totally distinct from the English, and their literature is said to be rich, especially in poetry.

Llewellyn was a prince, and Edward told the Welsh chiefs that if they would meet him at the great castle of Wales, Caernarvon, he would give them a prince who had never spoken a word of English and was a native of Wales. They accepted,



CASTLE CAERNARVON.

and were presented to the infant son of the king, who had been born on Welsh soil. This first English Prince of Wales was the second son of the king, and the chiefs supposed that he would rule their country alone, or at least that the title would be distinctive and permanent; but before the child reached maturity his elder brother died, and thus the Prince of Wales became the heir apparent to the English throne, and ever since then the title has simply served as the designation of the oldest son of the ruling monarch, a title with no real jurisdiction or special connection with the affairs of Wales.

In this connection may be introduced the Arthu-

rian legends, or myths concerning King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. Those legends figure prominently in English tradition and verse. No such persons ever existed; at least they have no place in authentic history. Robin Hood was a veritable highwayman, probably, a Saxon who turned freebooter to make reprisals upon the Norman barons who were titled robbers. The common people loved him for his lawless espousal of justice, and his memory has ever been held in esteem by the yeomanry of "Merrie England." The mythical Arthur goes back of the Saxons. He belongs to the traditions of the primitive Britons. The network of romance which has been woven about that name and its associates may be designated as the dream of the refugees who fled to the mountains of Wales. The enchanter Merlin, who formed one of good King Arthur's company, was the "Mother Shipton" of the Welsh, and it was a prophecy of Merlin which inspired the forlorn hope led by Llewellyn.

The ambition of Edward was more easily but less permanently gratified in Scotland. That part of the island had formerly acknowleged some allegiance to the English crown, but Richard of the lion heart had released the Scotch king from all allegiance on the payment of a sum of money, used by him in the Crusades. Not long after Edward came to the throne a dispute arose across the border as to who should inherit the Scotch kingdom. Edward was asked to settle the matter, which he finally did upon conditions of a renewal of the acknowledgment of Scotland as a fief, or dependency, of the English crown, and its king as his vassal. That made a partial union of the countries.

The Scotch king, Baliol, soon rebelled, and the famous William Wallace came to the front as the hero of Scotland. Wonderful exploits are attributed to him, and the English army was nearly destroyed when the martial genius of Edward saved it, and made him master of the situation. He showed leniency to all except Wallace, whom he beheaded in the Tower of London. The Scotch have never failed to cherish his memory gratefully.

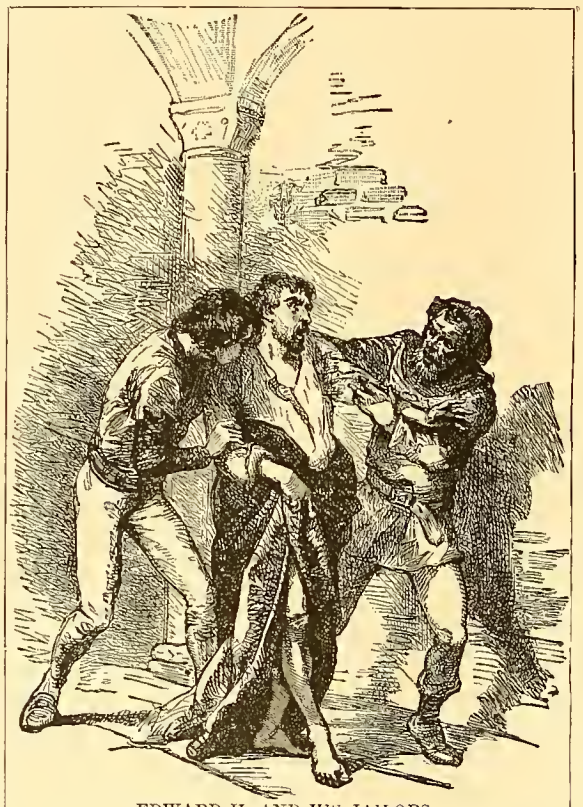
All this was early in the long reign of Edward. A generation passed, and Scotland seemed to be securely English. But a greater than William Wallace was raised up—Robert Bruce. This nobleman spent his earlier days at the English court, a semi-prisoner. Coming to manhood, patriotism fired his heart and he returned to his native land to head a revolt in favor of absolute national independence. His most staunch supporter was James Douglas, and together they fired the heart of Scotland. Edward himself was absent upon the continent at the time the war began, and his armies were so badly beaten that he made haste to patch up a peace with the king of France, returned and took the field in person, inspiring his army with new hope. But he was too old to bear the burdens of the campaign, and sank beneath them, his death resulting in the entire success of the Scotch cause. Scotland remained independent until James, the first of the Stuarts upon the throne of England, came by natural inheritance to wear both crowns, and the Welsh policy of Edward was extended to Scotland, thus rendering the entire island indeed one nation.

The glory of Edward was not military, but civil, for he was a broad-minded, far-seeing and eminently practical statesman. First of all, parliament assumed during his reign its modern shape, and ceased to be an irregular, inchoate and experimental body. Under his reign it became a well-defined legislature, and to this day a statute of Edward I. is as much the law of England, if unrepealed, as a statute of Victoria. Judicial reforms were effected of the highest importance. Instead of appeals to force and chance, relics of crude barbarism, reliance was placed upon the administration of justice in accordance with the principles of order and fairness laid down in *Magna Charta*. The relations of church and state were regulated in a way to curb the arrogance of ecclesiastical authority. The establishment of judicial districts was a great step in advance. That splendid fabric known as the British Constitution is indeed a system of law gradual in its growth, antedating English history and still in process of completion; and its corner-stone, the Great Charter, was laid by the unwilling hands of John Lackland; but the framework of the magnificent superstructure belongs to the reign of Edward I., and that not in rudiments alone, often in exact detail as well. Borough representation, which he introduced, had in it the very essence of civil liberty. Some of the Boroughs failed to be represented, attendance upon the sessions of parliament being looked upon in that day as a burden, much as service upon the jury now is. There was never any pecuniary compensation for the service, but

gradually an irksome duty came to be recognized as a high privilege.

During the reign of the first Edward the Jews were subjected to bitter persecution, and finally to expulsion. The number banished was about sixteen thousand, most of whom were robbed and slaughtered before they could make good their escape. From that time until the Protectorate of Cromwell there were hardly any Jews in England. No part of Europe has escaped the infamy of Jewish persecution.

The reign of Edward I., sometimes called Longshanks, extended from 1272 to 1307, and then the Prince of Wales took the throne as Edward II. His reign extended over a period of twenty years. They were melancholy years. The king had no fitness for government and was singularly unfortunate. To no purpose, except personal and national humiliation, did he prosecute the Scotch war in which his father lost his life. The worthless foreigner who was his first favorite, Piers Gaveston of Gascony, was so very obnoxious to the people that he had to be banished. The queen, Isabel of France, cared far more to advance the interest of her brother, Charles IV., than of her husband. When the two sovereigns quarreled she raised an army to oppose Edward, and defeated him, took him prisoner, and hanged his prime minister, Hugh Despenser. A parliament soon after convened, declared the king deposed and his son Edward III. the sovereign of England. A few months later the unhappy ex-king was ruthlessly murdered in the castle of Kenilworth, the victim of the cruelty of Isabel and her vile associate in crime and power, Roger Mortimer. Thus ended one of the most inglorious and unhappy reigns in English annals.



EDWARD II. AND HIS JAILORS.

Edward III. wielded the scepter forty years, including the first three years of his reign, during which his mother and Mortimer held practical sway. In 1330 he sent his mother, a prisoner, to a castle in Norfolk, executed her accomplice, and inaugurated a career of his own. His first thought was to regain Scotland, but he soon abandoned that scheme to devote his attention to a higher ambition, which was to be the king of France, claiming the crown by right of inheritance. The Salic law which bars royal females from succession prevailed in France, and so his title was fatally defective, for he based his right alone upon his mother's title. He none the less stoutly made the claim, and for a century the two countries were at war. For a much longer time the British sovereigns insisted upon appending to their legitimate title the words "and king of France." Edward III. began the war in 1338. It was not until 1346 that any important movement occurred, when the famous battle of Cressy was fought. The English force was small, but the day was won. The glory of that victory belongs to Edward's son, then only fifteen years old, "The Black Prince," as he was called, on account of the color of his armor. Prodigies of valor are related of the boy, and his after life gives some plausibility to them. The glories of Cressy were soon followed by the siege and fall of Calais. A brief truce was negotiated which continued ten years when it was broken by another battle in which the English won a brilliant victory. The actual advantage to the English was slight, however, for only a few cities on the coast were ceded to England by the peace which was finally agreed upon in 1374. Edward lived to bury his chivalric son,

the Black Prince, two years after the peace, himself following the next year, leaving the crown to the son of the illustrious prince whose death had been mourned as a national calamity.

EDWARD, THE BLACK PRINCE.

The century covered by this chapter is peculiarly rich in developments of an encouraging nature. The mere political history of the period is a small part of it. It is in the progress of the untitled many and the aristocracy of the brain that the real glory of the Edwardian age appears. It was not the heroes of war, from Llewellyn to the Black Prince, nor yet the statesmen of parliament and the judges of the assizes, who deserve especial praise. There had been brave warriors and noble patriots before. The grand fact of the period is that England ceased to be divided into enslaved Saxons and despotic Normans, the entire people becoming truly English in character. Instead of Robin Hood with his merry robbers, despoiling the nobles and sharing his booty with the peasants, the most popular personage in English traditions, we have people respecting the rights of others and tasting the sweets of manly privileges.

DEATH OF EDWARD III.

The supreme name of this period was that of Geoffrey Chaucer, the father of English literature. He was a truly great poet and thoroughbred Englishman. The literature of Old England, so far as it had intrinsic merit, was in Latin. The poetry of Beowulf and Cædmon, like the prose of King Alfred, the Venerable Bede and Asser, can lay claim to no intrinsic merit. Besides, their English was a language quite different from modern English. But Chaucer belongs to the vital present. His *Canterbury Tales* have indeed some indelicacies, many variations in orthography, and a few words now obsolete. It is none the less true that he is a perpetual wellspring of good English and delightful verse. Born in 1328, his last breath was drawn as the fifteenth century came upon the stage. A member of the nobility, a court favorite, happy in all the circumstances of his life, he was still the poet of the people. A voluminous writer, he composed more prose than poetry, but his elaborate poem, the *Canterbury Tales*, is the one immortal production of his genius.

Side by side with Chaucer stands John Wycliffe, the first to give a complete copy of the Bible to the English people in their own tongue. Wycliffe was born in 1324, and lived until 1384. Much of his time was spent at Oxford where he was a teacher of note. His translation was the work of his ripe age. In translating it he used the Latin Vulgate, and so many of the terms employed are the original Latin slightly Anglicized. It was a blow at the Romish church which none of his contemporaries seemed to appreciate. Chaucer and Wycliffe, working singly, yet together, did much the same work for the literature and religion of their country that Martin Luther did for the literature and religion of Germany, for they laid the foundations of whatever developed on British soil in letters and worship. Chaucer is called a skeptic by Green, but

Wycliffe was in spirit a veritable Puritan, and the mighty streams of influence which flowed from them

JOHN WYCLIFFE.

soon commingled and proved of incalculable blessing, secular and religious. Chaucer was the *avant courier* of the Renaissance, as that term may be understood in the light of French history, while Wycliffe was a radical religious reformer. Besides his translation of the Bible, he wrote and otherwise grandly wrought against the papacy, producing a profound impression, and winning to his cause a no less eminent man than John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster and father of the royal house of Lancaster. The Pope himself was alarmed, as well he might be, although the troublous times immediately following postponed the inauguration of the distinctive church of England, and all the reforms connected therewith.

There was one gloomy feature of this period, for it was in 1349 that the Black Death made its first appearance, that most fatal epidemic of all history. It swept over the Continent and the British isles with unexampled furor. No authentic record of mortality was kept, and we only know that it was a horror unimaginable. Large towns had grown up without sanitary provisions, such as water, sewerage and the like, and the filth was unendurable. The laws of health were disregarded and the superstitious people attributed their calamities to Providence. The futility of priestcraft and penance to stay the ravages of the pestilence did much for the cause of reform, awakening in the public mind thoughts akin to scientific reflections.

In the eleventh year of his age Richard II., the son of that popular favorite, The Black Prince, came to the throne. That was in the year 1377. That boy-king never reached years of real discretion. His uncle, John of Gaunt, was the first sovereign power behind the throne, an able, ambitious and unscrupulous man. Early in this reign occurred the rebellion of the peasants against the Poll-tax, led in Essex by a thresher called Jack Straw, and in Kent by a ditcher known as Wat Tyler, or Walter the Tyler. The former never came to anything serious, but Wat Tyler rallied a vast mob, marched upon London, sacked and destroyed the Palace of the Duke of Lancaster, committed other depredations, and succeeded in wringing from the King several charters allowing the laboring people a few cardinal rights. The peasants only demanded "the abolition of slavery for themselves and their children forever; reasonable rent, and the full liberty of buying and selling like other men in all fairs and markets, and a general pardon of all past offenses." The concession to these demands was not sincere, and soon the charters were revoked, Tyler assassinated and the people dispersed. Good, however, was accomplished, for the temper of the populace had been shown and a wholesome awe of the peasants inspired.

Richard was alike unpopular with high and low. His nature was exceptionally unlovely. He was continually quarreling with his uncles and his cousins. Some he killed and some he banished. Among those driven into exile was Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt. Soon after banishment he became by the death of his father, Duke of Lancaster. Having raised a small army across the channel, he ventured back in 1399. The unpopularity of Richard was such that the Duke soon found himself master of the situation and he proceeded to usurp the throne. The deposed king was sent to Pontefract castle a prisoner, where he soon ended his days, probably assassinated by royal command. Thus ended the last of the Plantagenets.

LANCASTER AND YORK.

CHAPTER LVIII.

THE PERIOD OF THE ROSES—A DUEL, WHAT LED TO IT AND WHAT CAME OF IT—HENRY IV.—THE LOLLARDS AND WYCLIFFE—HENRY V. AND THE ENGLISH IN FRANCE—BEGINNING OF THE ENGLISH NAVY—HENRY VI.—END OF THE ONE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR—THE ENGLISH REGENCY—JACK CADE AND HIS INSURRECTION—THE WAR OF THE ROSES—EDWARD IV.—WARWICK "THE KING-MAKER"—EDWARD V.—RICHARD III.—BOSWORTH FIELD—THE BLENDING OF THE WHITE ROSE AND RED IN THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

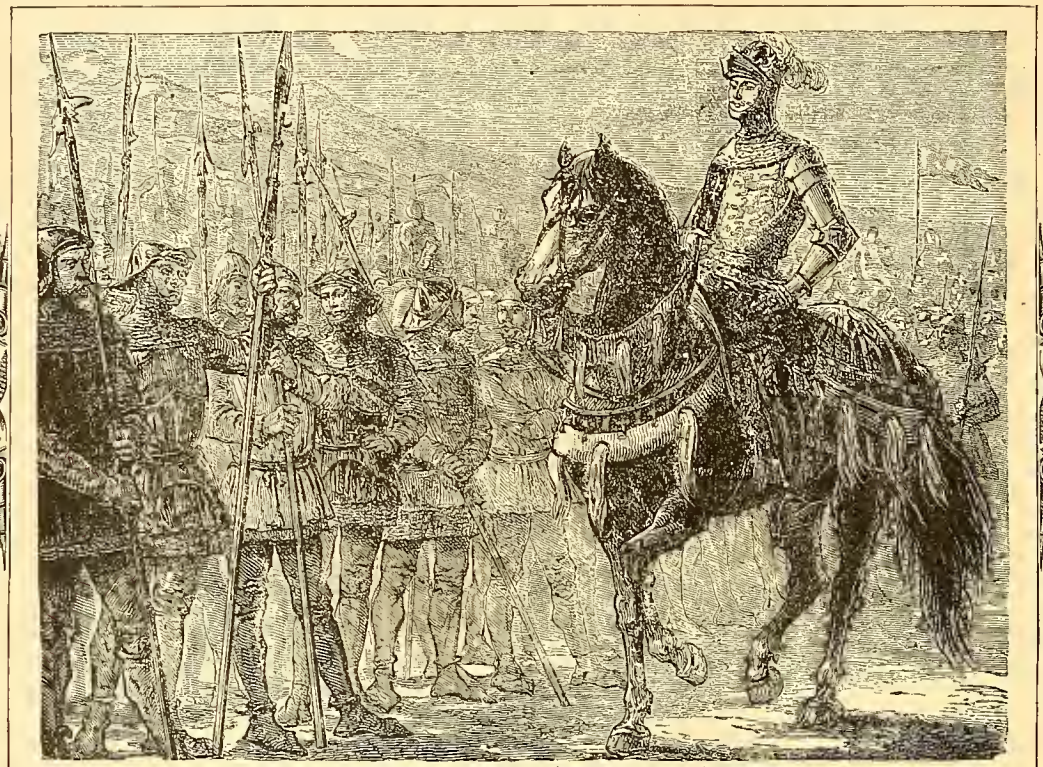
THE first of the Plantagenets, Henry II., came to the throne in 1154; the last of the house, Richard II., left it the last year of the fourteenth century. Then followed three Henrys, the Fourth, Fifth and Sixth, forming the House of Lancaster, and covering the period from 1399 to 1461. To the Lancasters succeeded three representatives of the house of York, Edward IV. and V. and Richard III., extending from 1461 to 1485. Those eighty-six years, the period of the roses, will now engage our attention.

Ten years after the coronation of Richard II., the youngest and ablest of his uncles, the Duke of Gloucester, took up arms in rebellion. He was so far successful that he dictated terms of settlement to the king, for a time, but soon the royal power so far gained the ascendancy that the duke was imprisoned at Calais, then an English possession in France. Gloucester soon thereafter died of apoplexy, according to the governor of the city; of poison, according to current and subsequent opinion. Among the adherents of Gloucester were two dukes, Norfolk and Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford. The latter was the son of John of Gaunt. In 1398 these ducal dignitaries had a quarrel which they proposed to settle by a duel. Hearing of it, and glad of an excuse, the king banished them both, the Duke of Norfolk for life and Bolingbroke for ten years. At that time the venerable father of Henry was alive. He was Duke of Lancaster. He did not long survive the banishment of his eldest son and heir. At his death the king seized and appropriated to the crown the dukedom of Lancaster. Hereford watched his opportunity, and when Richard went to Ireland in the summer of 1399 to conduct in person the Irish war, Henry Bolingbroke landed on English soil with a small but intrepid following. The returned exile had no designs upon the throne, but simply, as he protested, came back for the purpose of claiming his inheritance of Lancaster. But the king had a great many enemies and the times were ripe for dynastic revolution.

On the north was Scotland and across the English channel was France, both eager for revenge, and glad of an opportunity to assist a rebel. The Per-

cies of Northumberland brought their forces to the support of Bolingbroke, who soon found himself at the head of an army of 60,000 men. Even the regent who was in charge of the kingdom while the king was in Ireland, the Duke of York, went over to Henry's side. Richard came back with a very considerable army, but his soldiers deserted and he was taken prisoner and conducted to London. There he executed a formal abdication. That was the people in forgetfulness of the flaw in his title, he plunged into foreign war, managing to retain his crown until in 1413 death claimed him. No sovereign ever held fast to his scepter and yet had more occasion than Henry of Lancaster to say, "Uneasy rests the head that wears a crown."

During the reign of Richard II. the incipient cause of Protestantism had made a great deal of headway. It was in 1393 that parliament passed



HENRY V. REVIEWING HIS TROOPS BEFORE AGINCOURT.

September 29, 1399. The next day parliament deposed him by due process of law on the ground of malfeasance, and the banished duke who had returned to claim a duchy was duly installed as king of England under the name of Henry IV.

A crown thus won was not retained without constant effort. On the north was Scotland and across the channel was France, both ready to assist insurrection, and the spirit of faction ran so high that the opposition did not hesitate to seek foreign alliance. To gain the especial support of the church, Henry inaugurated persecution, being the first English king to burn heretics. In the hope of uniting the "Statute of *Premunire*," which provided that "whoever should procure from Rome or elsewhere, excummunications, bulls, or other things against the king and his realm, should be put out of the king's protection, and all his lands and goods forfeited." The leader in this anti-papal movement was John Wycliffe, a very learned professor in Oxford University, and translator of the Bible into English. During Henry's reign a strenuous effort was made to suppress and undo the work of Wycliffe. In 1401 it was enacted that "all persons convicted by their bishops of holding heretical opinions, and who should refuse to abjure the same, should be

burned to death," and this statute was not allowed to be a dead letter. Wycliffe himself, "The Morning Star of the Reformation," died peacefully in the year 1384. In the days of Richard II. and Henry IV. the Protestants were called "Lollards."

Henry V. was just ripening into manhood when upon the death of his father, March 20, 1413, he was called to the cares of state. The wild pranks of his youth and the coarse tastes of the times are well set forth by Shakspeare in connection with that unique character, Sir John Falstaff. Rising superior to the evil omens of his boyhood, the young king showed a masterly genius for public affairs. In the hope of curing factiousness he entered with great zeal upon the prosecution of war with France. The brilliant victory of Agincourt, a repetition of Cressy, made every loyal English heart true to his cause. The British sword seemed invincible, and France was at the mercy of Henry V. Step by step the French Unicorn receded before the British Lion.

In 1420 the famous treaty of Troyes was made, in accordance with which Henry married Catherine, daughter of the King of France, and was proclaimed regent of France, the French king of that day, Charles VI., being insane. The force of this treaty was not recognized by the Orleanists, however, and real peace was not secured. For nearly two years the king continued to be engaged in war upon the soil of France, when he died, leaving a son nine months old. In two months Charles also died, and thus the infant heir of two kingdoms, Henry VI., became king of England and France. Many of those who disputed the regency of the father conceded the validity of the claim of the son to the throne of France as well as England. But there was in France a party which supported the claim of the son of Charles VI., in preference to the grandson, holding the treaty by which the Dauphin, the Prince of Orleans, had been deprived of the royal inheritance, null and void.

Before proceeding with the reign of Henry VI. it deserves to be noted that Henry V. was the founder of the British navy. Prior to his reign the government had no ships of its own, but relied upon temporary loans of vessels from maritime towns and the merchant marine of private subjects. The fifth of the Henrys inaugurated a very important change when he built the first really formidable man-of-war England could ever boast.

To return now to the course of events under the infant heir to two thrones, we find troublous times. No doubt but that if Henry VI. had been of mature age and a sovereign of moderately good ability and character, the dream of Franco-English unity might have been realized. But this prospect was soon dashed to the ground, the possibility even never returning.

By the terms of the will the Duke of Bedford was made regent of France, a man of commanding ability. Paris was in his hands, and the only considerable French town not garrisoned by English troops was Orleans. The continuance of the struggle on the part of the Orleanists or French patriots seemed useless; but just when all was lost, Joan of Arc, more specifically mentioned in the history of France, came upon the field of action, inspiring patriotism by her fanaticism, and reversing completely the fortunes of the war.

Bedford died and the English were obliged to abandon the continent. The Maid of Orleans sought to deliver France from foreign rule, but she succeeded in doing the still better thing, saving England from the danger of having its nationality compromised and perhaps lost. The savior of two nations, she was, as we have seen, the victim of the unutterable meanness of both. Charles VII., uncle of Henry VI., mounted the throne. England had lost all continental possessions except Calais. The Hundred-Years War between the two nations came to an end in the year 1453.

Returning now to English soil, we find the country profoundly disturbed. There was constant friction during Henry's minority between the young king's uncle, Humphrey of Gloucester, and Cardinal Beaufort. Each claimed the regency. Gloucester was foully murdered, but the advantage did not accrue to the cardinal. Two years before that the king, always weak and almost imbecile, married Margaret of Anjou, and she, together with her special friend, William de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, ruled the realm after Gloucester's taking off. The utter failure of the English in France occasioned the banishment and subsequent murder of Suffolk, and the fall of that royal favorite was soon followed by several insurrections. The most formidable of these (not counting the War of the Roses) was the rising in Kent of twenty thousand men led by John Mortimer, better known as Jack Cade. The insur-

gents marched to London and encamped upon Blackheath. They demanded certain much-needed reforms in the laws relating to labor and taxes. The city council of London recognized the justice of the claims made. The king was removed to Kenilworth castle, and there was every prospect of a satisfactory settlement of the demands made. But Cade could not curb the plundering disposition of his followers, and the Londoners were obliged to take up arms against them in self-defense. The result was Cade was obliged to flee, many of his followers being slain. In his flight he was himself killed, and all the reforms promised were defeated.

The loss of France embittered the English nation and served as a sort of blood poison. The suppuration from the Lancastrian wound poured its deadly pus into the veins of both rival factions, and produced that terrible civil war, the War of the Roses, so called because the faction of Lancaster wore a red rose and the adherents of the house of York a white rose as their respective badges. The first outbreak was at St. Albans in 1455. For forty years the conflict raged with occasional truces.

The year following the expulsion of the English from France, Richard, Duke of York, was appointed Protector of the kingdom by Parliament. The Duke of Somerset, Edward Beaufort, was the leader of the branch of the house of Lancaster which opposed this protectorate. In less than a year Henry resumed the reins of government, a triumph of Somerset. Thereupon York took the field in hostility to his rival. The battle of St. Alban's (May 23, 1455) followed, resulting in the defeat of York. A partial peace was then effected, but in 1459 the hostilities were resumed. This time the white rose of York was in the ascendancy, and the king was captured, his queen and son finding refuge in Scotland. The Duke boldly claimed the crown, but Parliament compromised the matter by providing that Henry was to reign until death, when Richard of York, instead of Henry's own son Edward, should succeed to the throne. This adjustment was not at all satisfactory to the Lancasters. "Many of the great nobles," says a cotemporary historian, "rallied to the support of the young Prince Edward, and the Duke of York was defeated at Wakefield a little later. The duke was killed in the action, and his head, ornamented with a paper crown, was placed over the gate of the city of York. His son, the Earl of Rutland, was captured and murdered in cold blood by Lord Clifford. Edward, the eldest son of Richard, was now Duke of York. He at once took up the cause of his house, defeated the royal forces at Mortimer's Cross, and followed up his victory by a renewal of the bloody executions begun by the rival party. Queen Margaret won a victory over the Yorkist force in the second battle of St. Albans, and rescued the king from them. She failed to improve her advantage, however, and the Duke of York marched boldly into London, where he was declared king by the people and a large assemblage of nobles, prelates and magistrates, March 3d, 1461."

Edward IV., first of the three kings of the house of York, was born upon French soil, Rouen, in 1441. Although he was made king in 1461, the War of the Roses had not ceased. The Lancastrians cherished the hope of dethroning him until the battle of Tewkesbury, May 4, 1471, when Edward was completely victorious. But before that time his fortunes were various. Three years after his coronation he married Elizabeth Woodville, which served as an excuse for an outbreak, under the lead of the Earl of Warwick. This earl is one of the more notable characters in English history.

Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, known as "the king-maker," was first cousin of Edward IV. He was the wealthiest Englishman of his day, at least he enjoyed the largest revenue of any subject of the realm, and rivaled the king himself in the magnificence of his mode of living. He had done more than any other one man to place Edward upon the throne of England, and he made no secret of his greatness. He assumed to be a power behind the throne mightier than the monarch who sat upon it. At the time the king married Elizabeth, one of his own subjects, the lordly Warwick was at the French capital negotiating for his sovereign the hand of a princess of France. He was so much incensed at this that he gave his daughter in marriage to the king's younger brother Clarence, without royal permission, and upon an uprising in Yorkshire against certain levies in 1469 he and Clarence put themselves at the head of the insurgents. In the battle of Edgecot which soon followed, the royal forces were defeated, the father and brother of the queen beheaded.

A brief reconciliation followed. In 1470 hostili-

ties broke out again. This time Warwick was obliged to seek safety in flight to France. There the famous king-maker entered into negotiations with Queen Margaret for the restoration of Henry VI., to the English throne, the marriage of Prince Edward of Lancaster with his own daughter and the recognition of Clarence as the heir presumptive to the prince. By that arrangement he would make it reasonably certain that the crown would be inherited by the Warwick blood. Louis X. was then upon the French throne. He favored Warwick, and

TOWER OF LONDON.

the plan worked well. The seemingly invincible earl returned to England, marched upon London, took it and restored poor Henry the Sixth, Edward fleeing to Holland.

But Warwick's career was nearly at an end. Some six months later Edward returned with a force of Dutch and Flemings, and the battle of Barnet was fought, April 14, 1471, in which the great earl was slain. A few weeks later Queen Margaret and Prince Edward were both taken prisoners, and the latter slain. In the following June Henry himself, the last of the Lancasters, was put to death in the Tower of London. That ended the War of the Roses. It is said that in that war every male member of the house of Neville for two generations perished by the sword, with the solitary exception of George, Archbishop of York. The daughter of Warwick, who had married Prince Edward, was wedded in 1472 to Richard, Duke of Gloucester, afterward Richard III., but even then none of the blood of the "king-maker" ever flowed in the veins of royalty.

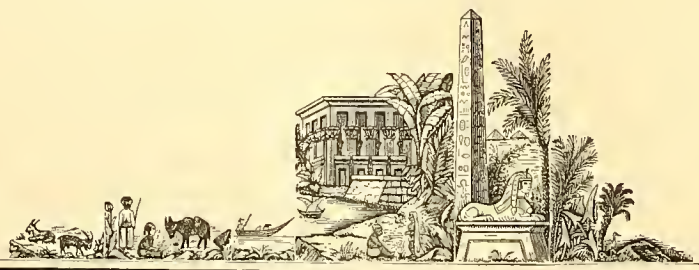
This last enterprise of the great Warwick paved the way for a renewal of hostilities between France and England. In 1475 the English again invaded the French territory for the purpose of subjugation. Nothing came of the expedition, however, except that Louis agreed to pay a pension to the English crown and betrothed his heir, the Dauphin Charles, to the eldest daughter of the king of England, a conclusion and result quite unsatisfactory to the English people, who still clung to the hope of continental possessions. The betrothal just mentioned was not carried out. Louis afterwards secured for his son and heir the hand of Anne, daughter of the German Emperor, Maximilian. Edward resolved to avenge this insult, and retrieve his popularity with his own people by another and more extensive invasion of France. But in the midst of his prep-

arations, April 9, 1483, he died, leaving his two sons Edward, aged thirteen years, and Richard, who was only ten years old.

Edward V. can hardly be said to have reigned at all. Upon the death of his father he departed for London, but before he had reached his destination his uncle, Richard of Gloucester, whose hideousness stands revealed in the dramatization of Shakspeare, had him seized and lodged in the Tower. Soon after, his namesake, the younger brother of the young king, was placed in the same royal prison. The poor boys were soon murdered and the unnatural uncle became king of England.

RICHMOND CROWNED ON THE BATTLEFIELD OF BOSWORTH.

Richard III. assumed the kingly office July 6, reigning two years. During this period he may be said to have assiduously tried by good government to purchase pardon for the crimes with which his coronation robes were stained. In this he signally failed. The disaffection was too great to be resisted. The Earl of Richmond, Henry Tudor, became the leader of the disaffection. He was the grandson of Owen Tudor and Catherine, widow of Henry V. On the maternal side of the house he was the heir to the Lancastrian claims to the throne. Fortunately for Henry, he was an exile in Brittany, and his confederates on English soil were discovered, arrested and executed before he had crossed the channel. But the spirit of rebellion could not be kept down. Many nobles united in inviting the exiled earl to return and claim the scepter. He was sagacious enough to propose to put an end forever to the cruel and senseless War of the Roses by marrying Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. Landing on English soil at Milford Haven early in August, 1485, Richmond joined battle with Richard on the 22nd of that month on the field of Bosworth. Richard commanded his own army in person, was defeated and slain. Richmond was proclaimed king upon the battlefield, and the entire nation acquiesced, amid universal satisfaction that the bloody rivalries of the Lancasters and the Yorks had at last terminated happily in the union of both houses, and their disappearance from the royal annals, equally absorbed in the house of Tudor.



THE TUDORS.

CHAPTER LIX.

HENRY VII. AND HIS TIMES—THE TIMES AND CHARACTER OF HENRY VIII.—DOMESTIC LIFE OF "BLUFF HAL"—REFORM AND ITS LIMITATIONS—HENRY'S WILL—EDWARD VI. AND LADY JANE GREY—BLOODY MARY—THE ACCESSION OF ELIZABETH—HER FIRST SUITOR AND THE ARMADA—MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS—ELIZABETH AND HER FRIENDS—THE ELIZABETHAN AGE—ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS—IRELAND AND THE TUDORS.

THE long reign of Henry VII. (1485-1509) was substantially free from civil strife. By marrying Elizabeth of York he made assurance of the close of the Wars of the Roses doubly sure. Some pretenders there were, but no very formidable claimants. This king was exceedingly avaricious, although not without breadth of mind.

HENRY VIII.

If he did not secure for his country the honor of patronizing Christopher Columbus, as he had the opportunity to do, he was not slow to take advantage of the great discovery made by that navigator. No sooner had the existence of America become known than English maritime enterprise began to give promise of its incomparable future. As early as 1490 Henry commissioned the Cabots, of Bristol, father and son, to go on a voyage of discovery, and after them came Gilbert, Drake, Frobisher and Hawkins. It is true that the immediate results of those expeditions were not important, but the spirit of adventure was stimulated and the seed sown came to a plentiful harvest eventually. The War of the Roses had destroyed serfdom, or villanage in England, for substantially the same reason that the civil war in the United States destroyed American slavery, and thus the way was prepared for commercial and industrial thrift. The king's greed for money had an indirect tendency in the same direction. It was during the reign of the first of the

Tudors that a French writer declared, "Of all the states in the world that I know, England is the country where the commonwealth is best governed and the people least oppressed."

By the time Henry the Seventh gave place to his son, Henry the Eighth (1509), all questions as to the succession were at an end, and the latter entered upon his inheritance under the most auspicious circumstances. Marrying Catherine of Spain, he may be said to have made the most brilliant matrimonial alliance possible at that day. The reign of this sovereign extends over a period of thirty-eight years, and occupies a large place in the historic thought of the world. His was a many-sided career, full of varied experiences. To appreciate the circumstances which conspired to make the career of Henry the Eighth and the England of that period illustrious, one must call to mind the discoveries of Columbus and Da Gama; the invention of Gutenburg; the rise of the Ottoman empire upon the ruins of the Byzantine empire; the Reformation in Germany, and the Renaissance in France. A new day had dawned upon Europe. The wealth of India and the Montezumas was beginning to pour in upon Western Europe, and new opportunities to arise. England was no longer the outer edge of creation, but the center of the world. It was a time to expand the thoughts of men, and without being a man of the finest parts, Henry VIII. was certainly a ruler of far more than ordinary ability, and his especial vices as an individual were the occasion of his chief virtue as a king. Licentious and heartless, he put aside Queen Catherine to marry Anne Boleyn. That was in itself an inexcusable crime, but in its consequences the greatest of national blessings. His character thus had compensations even where most reprehensible.

MARRIAGE OF HENRY VIII. AND ANNE BOLEYN.

This reign was early drawn into war with France and Scotland, some French towns being taken on the continent, and the brilliant victory of Flodden Field being won across the Tweed. But war was neither the business nor the pastime of this king. To get rid of his lawful wives seemed to have been his chief occupation for some time. Cardinal Wolsey undertook to bring this about in the case of Catherine within the pale of the Catholic church and with the connivance of the pope. But that was impossible, so strong was the Spanish influence at the Vatican. For failure herein the magnificent cardinal fell into disgrace and finally died. The pretext for the application for divorce was that Catherine was the widow of Henry's older brother, Arthur, who had died two months after marriage and prior to the death of Henry the Seventh. With the hypocrisy not unusual in those days he feigned conscientious fear that he was displeasing God. What Wolsey failed to do was essayed by another ecclesiastical tool, Thomas Cranmer, afterwards burnt at the stake by Bloody Mary for the part he took in these divorce proceedings, and for Protestantism. Cranmer's idea was to get an opinion from the universities first, in the hope that the pope would be influenced by the judgment of the learned. Here was a significant, if tentative, recognition of the growing power of education. It may be remarked that the king had shown considerable sincere sympathy with the progressive tendency of the day, the New Learning as it was called, although in his desire to win favor with the pope he had written a treatise in denunciation of Luther and his doctrines. Some of the universities gave the desired

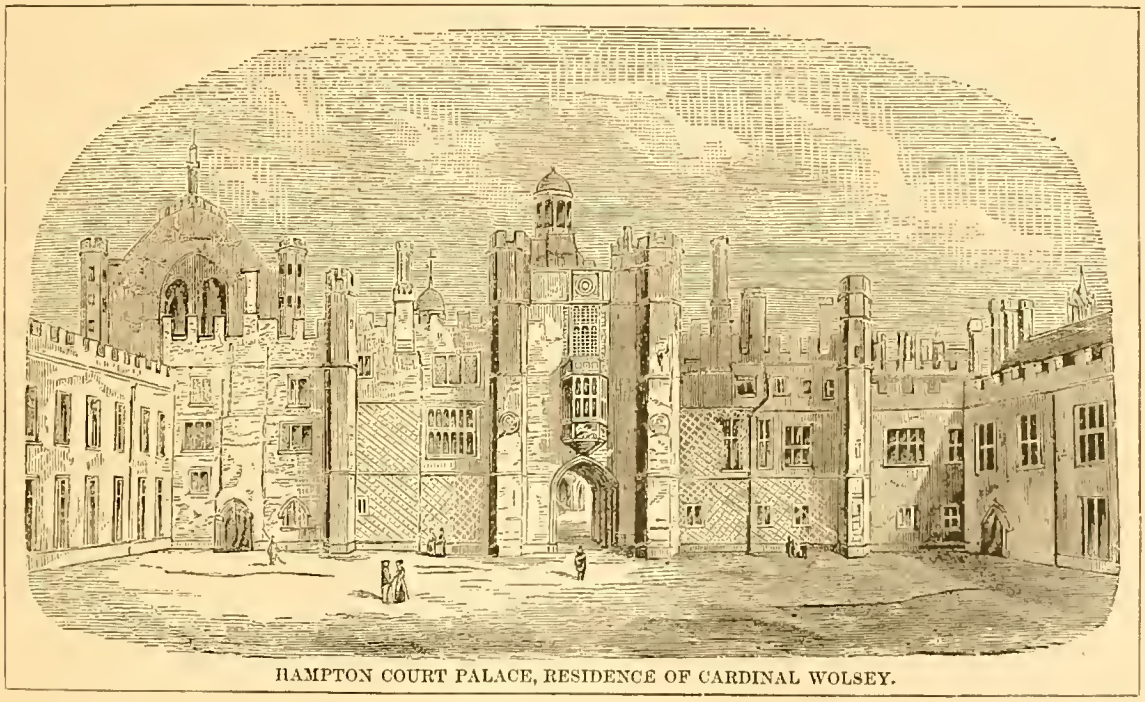
CRANMER.

opinion, but the pontiff of the church remained obdurate. Resolved to be rid of his wife, come what would, Henry defied the pope and unconditionally cut loose from Rome. Catherine was swiftly disposed of then, and Anne installed in her place.

The king soon tired of Anne Boleyn also, but instead of a divorce, had her beheaded, marrying one of her maids-of-honor, Jane Seymour, the very next day. She died within a year. Three other wives followed during the libidinous life of this monster, Anne of Cleves, Catherine Howard and Catharine Parr. The three children who came to the throne were borne to him by the three earlier wives. Edward VI., who was the third Tudor sovereign, was the son of Jane Seymour; Mary, of Catherine; Elizabeth, of Anne Boleyn. Such was the life of him whom his subjects were wont to call "Bluff Hal."

The policy of the crown was to magnify royal authority and curtail the jurisdiction of parliament. Wolsey ruled without parliament as far as possible, and Thomas Cromwell who succeeded him in political influence, sought rather to use that body as a subservient tool, filling it, as far as he could, with the mere creatures of the crown.

One notable disgrace to this reign was the beheading of the great and upright chancellor, Sir Thomas More, his offense being that he remained a devout and consistent Romanist. Henry's severance from the church of Rome, which occurred in 1533, resulted in stripping monasteries and churches of their vast wealth. He was not, however, in sympathy with the more radical ideas of the Reformation, and the sword of persecution fell heavier on dissenting Protestants than upon persistent papists. He seemed to take Rome as his model, rather than Geneva, only he wished to have the head-



HAMPTON COURT PALACE, RESIDENCE OF CARDINAL WOLSEY.

ship of church and state the same, strictly national.

By act of parliament Henry the Eighth had been allowed to settle the succession in his will. The provision he made was that Edward should be the immediate successor, and if he died without heirs, his older sister, Mary, should be the first to succeed, and if she too died childless, the younger sister, Elizabeth, should inherit the kingdom, and if she also passed away without heirs, the crown should go to the heirs of Henry's younger sister, Mary, Duchess of Suffolk, in preference to the family of his elder sister, Margaret, wife of James IV. of Scotland. All these contingencies arose. Edward was ten years old when his father died, and in six years

he too passed away, leaving no heir. His sisters also died childless. The family, too, of the Duchess of Suffolk became extinct. The will was carried out, and yet its purpose was singularly defeated when James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, came to be James I. of England, he being a descendant of Margaret Tudor Stuart.

Edward VI. was a very pious boy, wholly under Protestant influence. During his reign the church of England was brought quite near to the Lutheran standard. Mass was abolished, the reading of the Bible encouraged. The religion favored by the state may be said to have become thoroughly modernized. So feeble was the poor young king that the succession early became a matter of intense solicitude. It was known that Mary was a zealous papist. In their solicitude for the church the advisers of the king persuaded him to name the granddaughter of the Duchess of Suffolk, Lady Jane Grey, his successor. For this he had no lawful authority, and much as the ruling class deplored the accession of a Romanist, they resolved to uphold the law. The result was that the unfortunate and personally innocent Lady Jane was beheaded, with the instigators of the movement.

With the death of the last of all the Edwards, and the swift punishment of the Grey party, Mary came to the throne filled with bigotry, eager to be revenged upon the faith that had had so much to do with the troubles of her mother. In addition to this, was her marriage to and eager love for Philip of Spain. During the five years of her reign (1553–1558) nothing was left undone which could be done to restore England to harmony with Rome.

QUEEN MARY.

Many Protestants were brought to the stake. But all her efforts were futile. Blood enough she shed in reaction, but her success was temporary. The really permanent result of her reign was the loss of England's one remaining foothold on the continent, Calais. The French recovered that town, to the almost fatal chagrin of the queen, and the fierce indignation of the English people. It was to England a blessing in disguise.

We have reached now the reign of the last and incomparably the greatest of the Tudors, "the Virgin Queen," Elizabeth. It began 1558 and closed 1603, thus covering the most brilliant and glorious period of English history, with reference to which she herself might well say, "All of which I saw and part of which I was." Twenty-four years of age at the time of her coronation, already disciplined in the school of adversity, keenly alive to the perils of her position, she proved the right woman in the right place. Masculine in form, massive in intellect, impetuous in temper, she was a remarkable adept in all the arts of government.

Elizabeth early announced to Parliament her purpose to live and die a virgin queen. The first suitor for her hand was Philip of Spain, actuated no doubt by motives of policy. His suit was not so much as entertained. From that time on there was implacable enmity between the two sovereigns, culminating in the "Invincible Armada." Spain was the most powerful kingdom of Europe at that time, especially on the high seas. It was on the 31st of July, 1588, that the one hundred and thirty ships of Philip's Armada were seen off the British coast, intent on repeating the story of William of Normandy. The English ships were small and few, but the "ruler of the Queen's navee" was the dauntless Drake. The invading squadron was compelled by him to sail northward, and was struck by a terrible storm which shattered it into hopeless wreck. That was the culmination of the last attempt to "beard the lion in his den." Since then England has been secure from invasion, free to regulate her own affairs. Philip reduced England to an extremity which, with Elizabeth at the helm, was her opportunity to establish the principle of national security upon an impregnable Gibraltar.

Other suitors, whether foreign kings or lordly subjects, were easily disposed of; but she had a world of trouble with her beautiful cousin, Mary

Queen of Scots. She, like the other Mary, was a staunch Catholic. The papal party looked to her to restore the mother church. Catholic sovereigns espoused her cause. To what extent she was really guilty of plotting for the overthrow of Elizabeth, it is hard to say. Beautiful in person and captivating in manners, she was regarded as a dangerous rival. She had a checkered career; married first to the French Dauphin, afterwards Francis II., and later, upon her return to Scotland as a widow, she became the wife of Lord Darnley, the grandson of Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII. In Mary Queen of Scots vested the residuary title to the English crown, and she was the hope of the papal party. If she had no sinister designs upon that crown, it was certain that a very considerable party in England stood ready to employ unlawful means to precipitate her coming into the kingdom. In the meanwhile trouble came for Mary at her own court. Her favorite, Rizzio, was killed by Darnley, and not long after Darnley himself was killed by the Earl of Bothwell, to whom she gave her hand in a few weeks. This marriage provoked a popular uprising which resulted in her being forced to sign her abdication in favor of her son James, with a regency. Not long after she escaped and took refuge in England. Elizabeth afforded her asylum and professed sympathy, but her ministers of state were apprehensive of treason, and after long years of waiting brought Mary to trial for complicity with Philip in the expedition of the Armada. Her complicity in the murder of Darnley had been proved before. Convicted of treason, Elizabeth signed her death-warrant, and she was beheaded. Mary Queen of Scots has long been a favorite object of romantic interest, but in strict justice she hardly merited special commiseration.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.

Among her subjects Queen Elizabeth had two favorites at different times, the Earl of Leicester and the Earl of Essex, neither of whom deserve especially the prominence generally given them. In Lord Burleigh and Sir Walter Raleigh she had realstatesmen and fast friends. Sir Francis Drake, who sailed around the world, received the order of knighthood from her royal hand on board his own ship. Her mariners showed wonderful enterprise in the New World and India. The common people might well be classed among her friends, for during her reign the condition of the agricultural and industrial classes improved immensely. The Eliza-

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

bethan Age was the golden age of English literature. During that period flourished William Shakspeare, who scaled all the peaks of thought and flooded the land and age with glory. But we reserve all further discussion of literature for a subsequent chapter.

There was much which was barbaric in England when the last of the Tudors died. She herself was coarse and rude to a shocking degree. In profanity she could vie with "our army in Flanders." It is none the less true that during the reign of the great house of Tudor the nation rose from the mere rudiments of greatness to rank with the foremost nations of Europe. Once rid of the idea of becoming great by continental conquest and possessions, Britain set about in right good earnest becoming in deed as in name, Great Britain.

As early as the reign of Henry the Second, England cast covetous glance across the channel and sent an army into Ireland for its subjugation; but it was the Tudors who really decided the fate of that unhappy island. There was no centralization. Britain became great because the petty kingdoms were consolidated into one nation, while Ireland, which in the eighth century was far more advanced of the two, dwindled away and lost its splendid opportunity through the calamitous influence of the tribe and the clan, in distinction from the country. For a long time the "English Pale," or the area of actual British rule in Ireland, was very limited. Henry VII. determined to extend it, but pursued his purpose only feebly. Henry VIII. was more fully bent on Irish subjugation. Under his reign nobles and people felt the hand of a master. The last of the Henrys took the title of King, instead of Lord of Ireland, and his successors upon the throne have never ceased to hold fast both the shadow and the substance of Irish sovereignty.

To suppress the national sentiment, the language, dress, customs and laws of the country were prohibited. The fact that Henry was at enmity with the pope made loyalty to Rome an expression of patriotism in Ireland. Edward the Sixth was actuated more by zeal for Protestantism than by political considerations in his endeavors to extend English authority in Ireland. When Mary came to the throne and Protestantism lacked the support of the government, it almost immediately melted away. She was not disposed to abandon the island to itself, by any means, but her personal sympathies were with the Irish in matters of religion. Elizabeth was in sympathy, of course, with the Protestantism of her brother, rather than the papacy of her sister; but she took a secular view of the Irish question, and under her the power of the British crown was felt throughout the entire island. "Every vestige," says Green, "of the old Celtic constitution of the country was rejected as barbarous. The tribal authority of the chiefs was taken from them by law. They were reduced to the position of great nobles and landowners, while their clansmen rose from subjects into tenants, owing only fixed and customary dues and services to their lords. The tribal system of property in common was set aside, and the commercial holdings of the tribesmen turned into the copy-holds of English law. In the same way the chieftains were stripped of their hereditary jurisdiction and the English system of judges and trial by jury substituted for proceedings under Brehon, or customary law. To all this," he blandly adds, "the Celts opposed the tenacious obstinacy of their race." After giving many details in regard to the colonization of Ulster, which was the culmination of the Irish policy of the Tudors, Green observes, "The evicted natives withdrew sullenly to the lands which had been left them by the spoiler; but all faith in English justice had been torn from the minds of the Irishry, and the seed had been sown of that fatal harvest of distrust which was to be reaped through tyranny and massacre in the age to come." Parnell in solitary confinement for words spoken in parliamentary debate, and that by the orders of a Liberal ministry, is a continuation of what might be called *Tudorism* in Ireland.

THE STUARTS AND THE COMMONWEALTH.

CHAPTER LX.

JAMES I. AND THE GUNPOWDER PLOT—SIR WALTER RALEIGH—TOBACCO AND POTATOES—KING JAMES' VERSION OF THE BIBLE—VIRGINIA AND NEW ENGLAND—CHARLES I. AND THE ROYAL PREROGATIVE—ELIOT, PYM, HAMPDEN AND CROMWELL—THE LONG PARLIAMENT—CAVALIERS AND ROUNDHEADS—REGICIDE—THE COMMONWEALTH—THE PROTECTORATE—CHARLES II.—JAMES II.—WILLIAM AND MARY—ANNE AND MARLBOROUGH—THE STUARTS, AND ENGLAND AT THE CLOSE OF THAT DYNASTY.

IT was on the 24th of March, 1603, that "Good Queen Bess," as the English often called her, passed from earth, and in accordance with her wish, James, the sixth king of Scotland by that name, succeeded her, his title as King of England being James I. Then at last was accomplished the union of Scotland and England. The new sovereign had been carefully nurtured in the Presbyterian faith, albeit his mother was a staunch papist, but his sympathies were with neither of those churches. Episcopacy suited his taste. Both the Presbyterians (or Puritans, as they were called in England) and the Catholics had expected his countenance and support, and he disappointed them both. The disaffected factions were intense in their indignation, and the king's friends seriously apprehended trouble, and not without reason. A little more than a year after his coronation the famous Gunpowder Plot was discovered, a conspiracy which has never ceased to fill the average British heart with a holy horror of the papacy. This plot was devised by Robert Catesby to blow up the parliament house while that body was in session. A cellar beneath it had been hired, and filled with thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, concealed beneath a pile of wood. The session was delayed, from various causes, until November 5, 1605, and that day was finally fixed for the explosion. It was the most diabolical conspiracy ever hatched. A few days before the session began, a Catholic member of the House of Lords was warned not to take his seat at the opening of the session. This was a suspicious circumstance, and served to put the government on its guard. Guy Fawkes, who was to light the fatal match, was seized in the act of entering the cellar on the morning of the session. A search soon disclosed the horrid conspiracy. The sensation produced was profound, and to this day Guy Fawkes is annually burned in effigy on the night of November 5th by the populace, and the papal cause in England has never recovered from the injury it then received.

One of the first acts of James was the arrest and conviction of Sir Walter Raleigh on the false charge of conspiring against the king's life. That brilliant ornament of the Elizabethan age may well be called the father of English America. To him belongs the honor of founding a colony of his countrymen in Virginia in 1596. It did not remain permanently,

but it none the less laid the foundation of the colonial policy of England, and to have done that was glory enough for any man. He introduced the Indian plant, tobacco, in Europe, at least in England, where it speedily gained popular favor, notwithstanding the king was bitterly opposed to its use. James went so far as to write a book called "A Counterblast to Tobacco," but to no purpose. The weed grew in favor, and the demand for it had much to do with the renewed and successful attempt to establish a settlement in Virginia. Tobacco would not grow to advantage in England, and if secured at all must be cultivated in its native land. But Sir Walter found that another American product, the potato, would thrive on English soil, or rather, "on Irish ground," for he planted some brought from America upon his estate in Ireland, and from that experiment came the use in that country of this great staple of food.

King James was a noted pedant. Utterly destitute of genius, hardly blessed with average talent, he had an inordinate opinion of his own ability. He conceived himself to be an author of brilliant parts. He wrote much, but nothing of any value. In the literary world his only claim to distinction is the fact that the so-called authorized English version of the Bible, the one used by the Protestants of all denominations, bears his name. He had nothing to do with making the translation, except to favor and convoke the assembly of learned divines at Westminster which made that august translation. Some fifty persons were employed four years at the task.

The death of James I. occurred March 27, 1625, when he was fifty-nine years of age, and had been upon the throne of England twenty-two years. The great events of his reign were the establishment of the two leading Anglo-American colonies, Virginia in 1607 and New England in 1620, of which we need not further speak here, except to add that the former was due to the love of tobacco, the latter to the love of God.

THE GUNPOWDER CONSPIRATORS—From an Old Engraving.

The laws, during the reign of James I., against all religious dissenters, Puritans and Catholics, were very severe, but his son, Charles I., who came to the throne July 16, 1625, was filled with a determination to assert still more strongly the royal prerogative in matters of taxation, faith and worship. Louis the Grand of France had no more exalted opinion of royalty than did this second of the Stuarts. He conceived it to be the privilege of the king

to do about what he pleased. But the British parliament was not the French States General. By his day the House of Commons had become a tremendous power. During the first half decade of his reign he called three parliaments, in each one of which the Commons demanded the redress of grievances in accordance with the principles of the Great Charter, before making appropriations for the public service and the royal household. There was a deadlock in each case, and the parliaments were dissolved without legislative action. The queen was a French princess, and the chief counselors of the crown, Buckingham, Strafford, and Laud, attempted to play the *role* of Richelieu. It was in the third parliament of Charles that the famous Petition of Rights was offered, and secured from the king some concessions, afterwards violated. One of the first and most conspicuous leaders of the Commons was Eliot, ancestor of John Eliot, the great Indian apostle. He was beheaded before the popular cause had gained much headway. Associated with him were Pym, Hampden and Cromwell. The two latter fill the larger place in history. John Hampden stoutly refused to pay taxes unjustly and unconstitutionally levied by the king in disregard of parliamentary authority. His resistance was made a test case and proved a wonderful advantage to the popular cause.

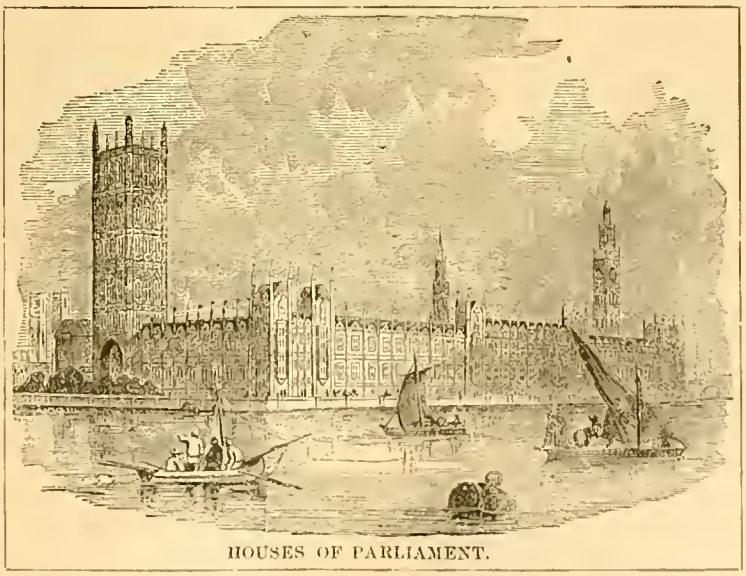
TRANSLATING THE BIBLE.

Cromwell's first speech in the Commons was made in 1629, and Hampden's resistance of illegal taxation dated from 1638. All

OLIVER CROMWELL.

the while the contest gained in stubbornness on both sides.

There was trouble in Scotland and Ireland also, especially the former. The king tried to force Episcopacy upon the Presbyterians across the Tweed, and they were fired with indignation. The Irish were less rebellious, for once, than the Scotch, and were easily pacified by Strafford. That statesman was so elated with his success in Dublin that he persuaded the king to call still another parliament, the fifth of his reign. It met on the 3d of November, 1640, and is known as the celebrated Long Parliament. One of the first things it did was to impeach Strafford. He died upon the scaffold the following year. Laud was sent to the Tower; a bill passed providing for triennial meetings of parliament, and the abolition of that very odious secret tribunal, the Star Chamber. The more the king conceded, the louder the demands for redress, and the more reso-

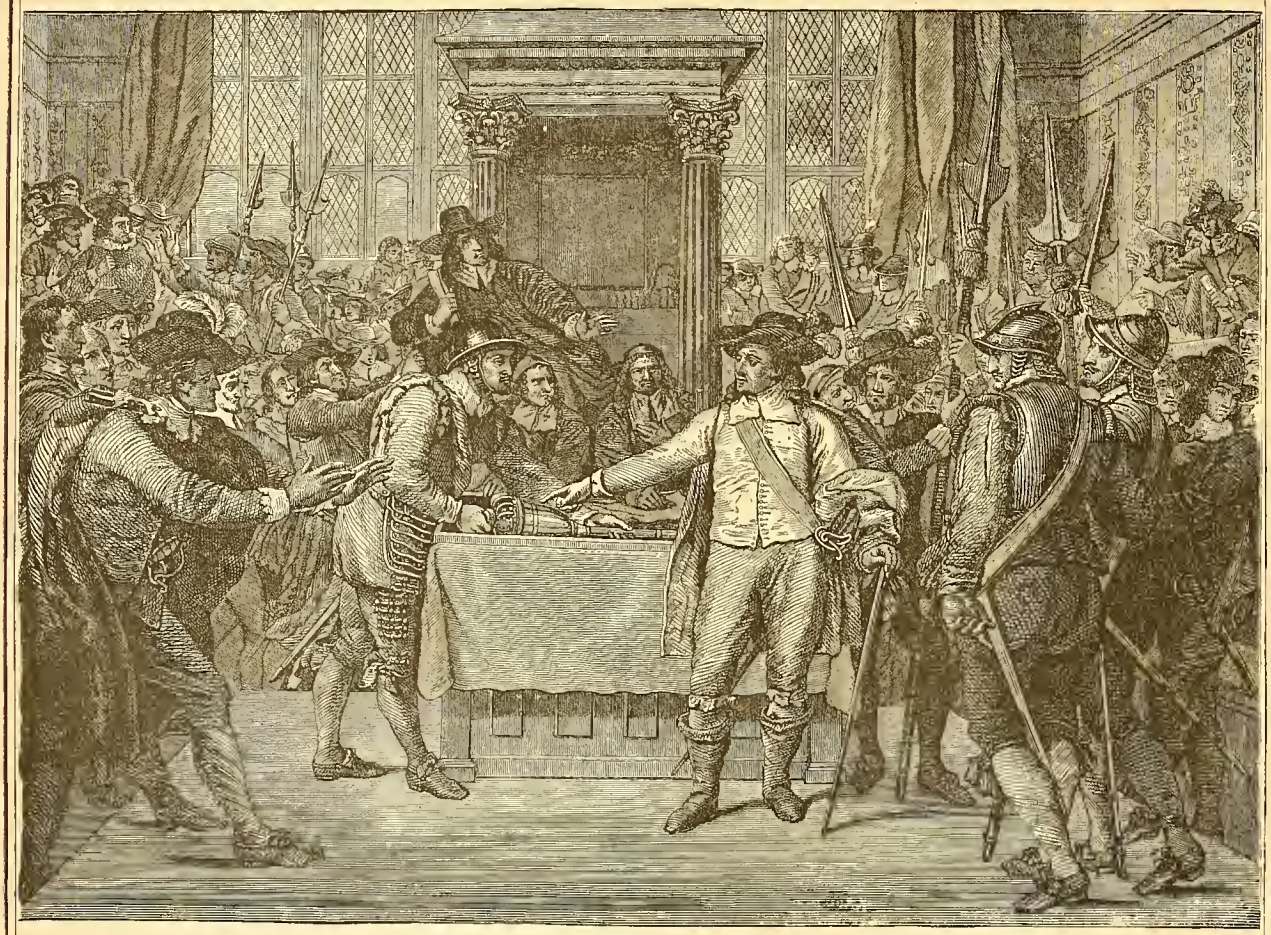


HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.

lute the Commons, the more arrogant did Charles become.

Open war broke out in 1642 between the crown and Parliament, the Episcopalians adhering to the cause of the king, the Puritans quite as warmly espousing the cause of Parliament. The former were called Royalists or Cavaliers, the latter Roundheads. The Presbyterians of Scotland allied themselves with the Roundheads on condition that Presbyterianism should be established in England. Such was the Solemn League and Covenant, as it was called. Now Cromwell came more prominently to the front than ever. In parliament he had been less conspicuous than Pym, but in war he was the master mind. His "Ironsides" were terrible in battle. In 1644 they won the victory of Marston Moor and the next year the decisive field of Naseby was won.

Charles then fled to Scotland. He was given up, tried by the Commons for treason, found guilty and beheaded January, 1649. The court which tried him was extra-constitutional and in the nature of a court-martial, although composed of members of parliament. Many of the Roundheads disapproved the regicide, but the king had forfeited his right to the crown, and his execution was another long step toward the rule of the people by the people.



CROMWELL DISSOLVING THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

The Commonwealth was now declared, that is, a government by the Commons without king or House of Peers. In Ireland Charles II., son of Charles I., was declared king, but Cromwell soon crushed out the Irish rebellion, practicing horrible cruelty in so doing. The royal cause struggled on a little longer, but by 1651 the contest was over, and the younger Charles found asylum at the

French court. For two years more the Long Parliament remained in session, performing the functions of government, Cromwell being merely the head of the army. In April of that year the blunt soldier marched with troops into the House and dispersed that body in an unceremonious manner, and the parliament which had begun thirteen years before and had previously lost its upper house or head, and was well called "The Rump," passed out of existence into perpetual history, memorable for justice rather than law.

In 1653 began the Protectorate, and it continued until 1660. A parliament summoned by Cromwell conferred upon him the office of Lord Protector, afterwards made for life, with power to name his successor. This wonderful man held the reins of government until 1658, singularly indifferent to the forms of law, an autocrat without being a tyrant. His rule was little else than martial law on a grand scale, but under his sway the nation progressed rapidly and was a tremendous power in the world. During that irregular period England wrested the mastery of the Channel from the Dutch fleet, and thus gained a naval ascendancy of inestimable value to the commerce of the country. Cromwell was a patriot and a benefactor, if somewhat lawless and high-handed. He failed mainly in not adapting his government to the constitutional traditions and respecting the established order of things. His son, Richard Cromwell, whom he named his successor, was neither fitted for the cares of state nor ambitious of public honor. In 1660 the Protectorate ceased to exist without a struggle.

Charles II. was in Holland when the Cromwellian fabric of government fell asunder. He published a declaration of amnesty and toleration, returned and was received with every demonstration of public satisfaction. His reign extended to 1685, and was uneventful. The court was noted for its profligacy. Charles himself was an easy-going, pleasure-loving time-server, secretly accepting a pension from the King of France, caring little for the public or his own honor so long as he could "eat, drink and be merry." The nation got on very well with such a king. He was at heart a Catholic, but no bigot. The fate of his father exercised a wholesome restraint upon his inclinations. He longed to help the papal cause on the Continent, but was too timid to do so. His death occurred in February, 1685.

When Charles the Voluptuary died he was succeeded by his austere brother, James II., whose reign of three years was a futile endeavor to restore the papacy. This king was conscientious in his devotion to the mother church, and felt it to be his sacred duty to revive the ancient worship. To this end, in the spirit of the Inquisition, he inaugurated the "Bloody Assizes," a series of trials held by Chief Justice Jeffries, proverbial for his injustice. The nation was in no mood to tolerate this policy, and an invitation was sent to his daughter Mary and her husband, William of Orange, to come over and take the scepter. The invitation was accepted, and a revolution of the greatest importance effected without staining English soil with blood. James was so very unpopular that he was glad to escape with his family in disguise.

WILLIAM OF ORANGE.

Mary was indeed a Stuart, but her husband was coequal with her in authority, and he was thoroughly imbued with the spirit of Protestantism as it had been developed in the Dutch struggle with Spain. The only real strength of James was his continued recognition as king of England by Louis XIV. of France, and the sympathy of the Catholics in Ireland. To the latter island he made his way with a small army supported by French gold. On Irish soil was fought the famous Battle of the Boyne, the celebration of which has occasioned so many riots between Orangemen (so named from William of Orange) and the Irish Catholics. That battle occurred July 1, 1690, and was a signal victory for William and the Orangemen over James II. and the Irish, his supporters. In 1694 Queen Mary died, but William continued to hold the reins of government until his death, 1702.

During the previous year parliament had passed the Act of Settlement (for William and Mary were childless) by which the succession was conferred upon Mary's sister Anne, wife of Prince George of Denmark, she being a Protestant and the wife of a Protestant, while the son of James, who was afterwards known as the Pretender, was a papist. After

Anne and her children the succession should go to

QUEEN ANNE.

the dowager, Electress Sophia, a granddaughter of James I., "and her heirs being Protestants." The reign of Anne, from 1702 to 1714, was memorable for the splendid victories of the English army in Flanders, under the command of that greatest military genius of his age, the Duke of Marlborough. To him England owes Nova Scotia and Minorca. It was also memorable as a period during which many famous authors lived; the postoffice system was adopted, the country prosperous, and the union of the "United Kingdom" made stronger and more equable.

For a little more than a century the Stuarts wore the English crown, except as it was temporarily taken from them. As a dynasty it was inglorious and mediocre; but the nation steadily advanced in all that constitutes national greatness, and from being an insignificant island, a mere appendage to Europe, it rose during the era of the Stuarts to the very front rank, Marlborough and his troops being hardly less potent in continental affairs than Wellington and his troops were a century later. But it was even more to the general prosperity of the country than to military genius and valor that the England of that period owed its commanding position in the family of nations.

PRESENT ENGLAND.

CHAPTER LXI.

THE DECAY OF ROYALTY—THE GEORGES—WILLIAM IV.—VICTORIA—A SHORT RETROSPECT—BLENHEIM AND GIBRALTAR—WESLEY, WHITEFIELD AND THE METHODISTS—DR. JOHNSON AND LEXICOGRAPHY—BLACKSTONE AND THE COMMON LAW—WILBERFORCE AND AFRICAN SLAVERY—COLONIAL AND INTERNATIONAL INTERVENTION—RESULTS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY AND NAPOLEONIC WARS—THE CORN LAWS AND FREE TRADE—POLITICAL PARTIES—PARTY LEADERS—ROYALTY, ITS PALACES AND REVENUES—PARLIAMENT—THE MINISTRY—THE UNITED KINGDOM AND BRITISH EMPIRE—COLONIAL POSSESSIONS.

MODERN England may be said to date from the bloodless revolution which cost James II. his crown. His expulsion from the kingdom not only secured Protestanism from all danger of a papal reaction, but it subordinated the royal prerogative to the will of the people. Henceforth the sovereignty will not merit much attention, being a very insignificant part of Present England. To clear the way for "weightier matters" than crowns and scepters, without entirely ignoring the royal family, it is proposed to narrate the notable dynastic facts before entering upon the heart of the subject before us in this chapter. Queen Anne died August 1, 1714. In accordance with the Act of Settlement passed by parliament in 1701, George I., Elector of Hanover, succeeded her upon the throne. His reign continued thirteen years. Sir Horace Walpole, whose motto was, "Every man has his price," was the foremost politician (statesman he was not) of that reign. Walpole became premier under George the First, and continued to hold that position fifteen years under his successor, George II. The most memorable feature of the reign of the first of the Georges was the South Sea Bubble. That gigantic speculation dates back to Queen Anne's reign, the South Sea Company having been chartered in 1711. It was a scheme to monopolize British trade along the coast of Spanish America. In a few years the company became a formidable rival of the Bank of England in financial influence. Its prosperity was purely speculative. It had the effect

GEORGE I.

to stimulate a vast amount of speculation. A wild period of financial lunacy set in. The bubble burst in 1720, and thousands of families were ruined by it. It was cotemporary with and similar to Law's Mississippi scheme, which crazed and bankrupted France.

The reign of the second George was a long one, extending to 1760, and the period was one of great importance, but the king himself had very little to do with the actual accomplishment of any of the great results to be hereafter set forth. At his death his grandson, George III., came into the royal inheritance. His reign extended from 1760 to 1820, covering the period of the Revolutionary War which freed this country from British tyranny, also the career of Napoleon. Insane as this king undoubtedly was during a part of his reign, his capacity for affairs of state mattered little. The popularity of parties and party leaders determined the policy of the government. During the last ten years of this reign the Prince of Wales was regent. The regency terminating with the death of the demented king in 1820, the prince was crowned George IV. He occupied the throne ten years. The third George was obstinate and finally demented, but morally a most worthy sovereign, while his son and successor was a debauchee of the vilest sort. In his domestic life the last of the Georges was unhappy and disreputable. At his death his brother, the Duke of Clarence, succeeded to the crown as William IV. For seven years he wielded the feeble scepter of the great kingdom. Dying childless, the succession fell to the lot of Victoria, daughter of his brother, the Duke of Kent. Ascending the throne in 1837, at the age of eighteen, she is now in the enjoyment of a long and prosperous reign. In 1840 she married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who died in 1861. Personally she is very popular; politically she is merely what the nation decrees, through parliamentary elections. Her heir, the Prince of Wales, does not hesitate to say that the continuance of monarchy in England depends on the will of the people.

GEORGE III.

Having traced the sovereigns of England in their decline to the present time, we now turn to the progress of Present England. In order to appreciate the civilization which is the crowning honor of to-day, it is necessary to look back a little to the period covered by the preceding chapter.

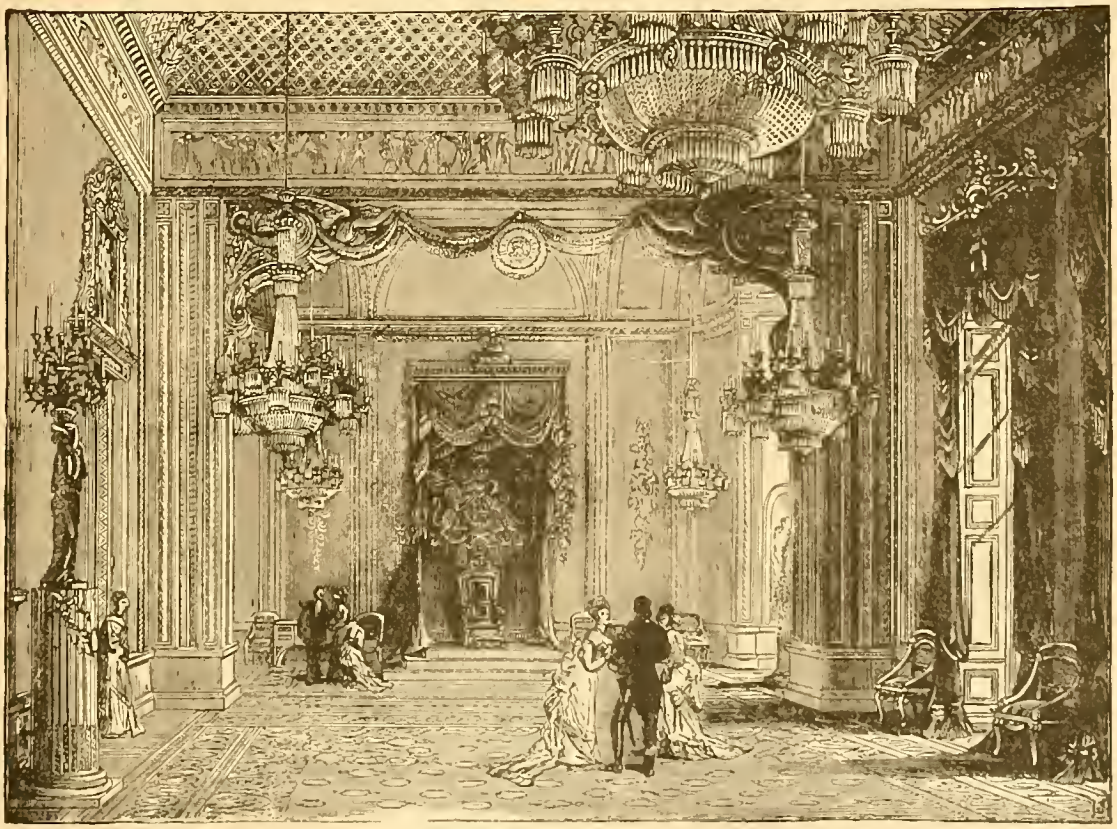
VICTORIA AND PRINCE ALBERT.

It was during the reign of Charles II. that the Royal Society for the Promotion of Science was formed in London, and most excellently well did it merit the name, for right royally did it foster the growth of exact knowledge. In 1619 Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood, and thus laid the foundation of physiology, and from that time on the spirit of Roger Bacon has seemed to animate the British mind, producing, later in the century, Sir Isaac Newton, whose discovery of the law of gravitation was an epoch in science. The first English newspaper was printed in 1641, six years after the post-office system had been established. The first toll-gate was erected in England in 1663, which was the beginning of passable roads for wagons. The foreign trade which had only just begun in the sixteenth century, became very large in the seventeenth, especially with India. The use of tea began late in the seventeenth century. The Bank of Enland was established in 1694, during the reign of William and Mary, from which reign dates the national debt of Great Britain. If a national debt is not a national blessing, it may yet be safely asserted that its contraction was necessary in this case to the development of the nation, if not to its absolute existence. By the aid of the money borrowed on the strength of the national credit England was enabled to raise and equip the armies and navies indis-

VICTORIA—1880.

pensable to expansion from a petty kingdom to a mighty empire.

It was in the year 1704 that Marlborough won the splendid victory of Blenheim and other hard-fought battles, which came near wrecking the power of Louis XIV. During the same year Sir George Rooke carried by storm the fortress of Gibraltar, which made England Mistress of the Mediterranean Sea, with its inexhaustible wealth of commerce, an advantage of more substantial value to the people than all the mines of Peru and Mexico. In losing Gibraltar Spain lost much, but England gained incomparably more; the former being unable to make full use of the advantage involved in the possession of that rock.

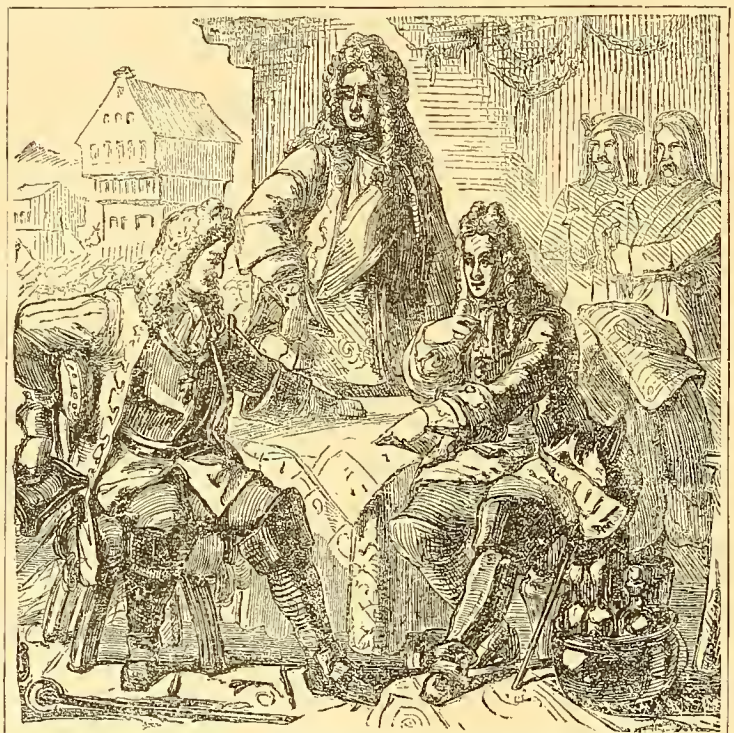


THE THRONE ROOM, ENGLAND.

Among the more noteworthy characters of the eighteenth century should be mentioned the Wesleys, John and Charles, and their co-worker, Whitefield. They were born early in the century, John Wesley in 1703, his brother Charles in 1708, and George Whitefield in 1714. The younger Wesley was the author of many very popular hymns, while the other two men succeeded by their eloquence and zeal as preachers in making a most profound impression upon the English-speaking people of two hemispheres. They founded the Methodist Episcopal Church in England and America. The characteristic which the denomination has always had, exceeding enthusiasm in the work of conversion, it derived from them. They laid the foundation of an organization which has been a tremendous influence in the world. Whitefield was a prodigy of eloquence, but John Wesley, by his astonishing industry as an organizer, writer and preacher, fairly earned the supreme honor of establishing a church which now, when only a little more than a century old, numbers in communicants between four and five millions of souls.

Dr. Samuel Johnson is fairly entitled to the distinction of being the Father of the Dictionary.

Born in 1709, educated at Oxford, he was an author by profession. From 1747 to 1755 his time was mainly devoted to his great work, "The Dictionary of the English Language," an incomparable service to the cause of letters. Attached to him as a sort of literary lackey was Boswell, who preserved and published the most minute details of the life and conversation of the great lexicographer. It may be remarked that important as was the service of Johnson in defining the right spelling, pronunciation and meaning of English words, the really supreme honor in the line of lexicography belongs to an American of that same and the succeeding century, Dr. Noah Webster.



MARLBOROUGH, PRINCE EUGENE AND LUDWIG AT BLENHEIM.

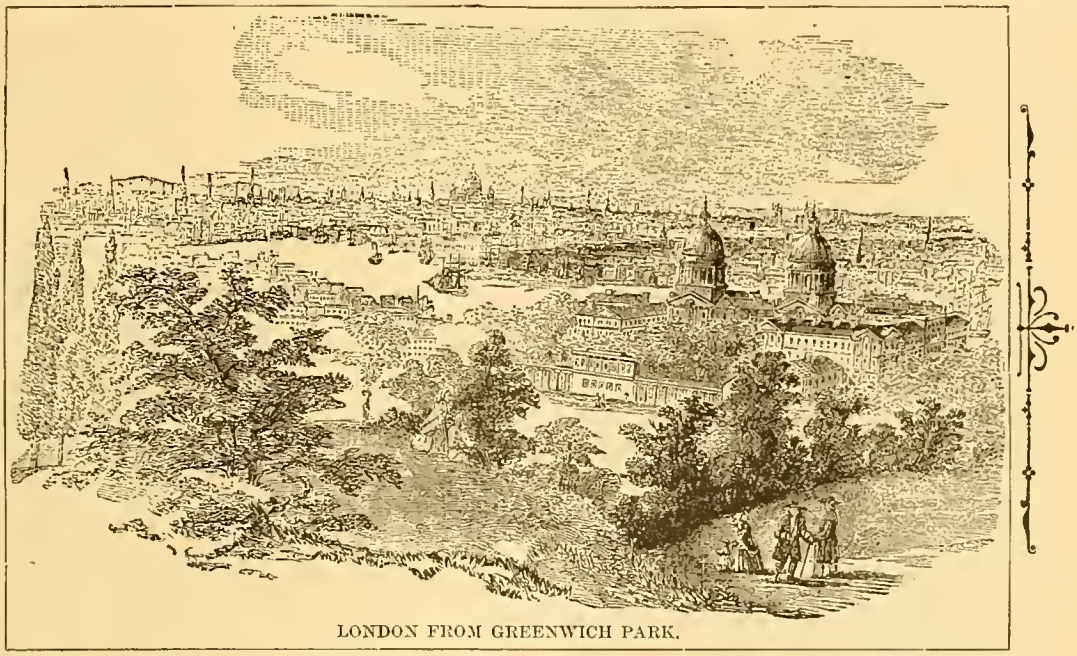
In the department of legal literature no name can be compared to that of Sir William Blackstone, whose Commentaries, written about the middle of the eighteenth century, were the first clear, intelligible and scientific presentation of the English common law. His work is still a text-book, studied by every law student, and to be found in every law office in Great Britain and the United States, wherever, in fact, the common law prevails or is a subject of study.

One more Englishman of the eighteenth century deserves mention, William Wilberforce, the great Emancipator. He was a man of immense wealth, and in early manhood an ordinary member of the House of Commons; but in 1787, when about thirty years of age, he resolved to devote himself to the cause of abolishing the African slave trade. Burke, Pitt and Fox, the great political triumvirate of that day, nobly seconded his efforts, and after a struggle of twenty years his philanthropy was crowned with success. In the course of that struggle the British public sentiment upon the infamy of slavery was raised to a standard so high, and made to rest upon a foundation so secure, that British influence, wherever felt, has always from that day been brought to bear (with inconsequential exceptions) in opposition to the hideous traffic and the horrible institution of slavery. And it is very largely due to this British sentiment that it may now be said that slavery has been wiped from the face of the globe, its few remaining vestiges being in process of extinction.

As the wars between America and England belong to the history of the United States, so the campaigns which resulted in Waterloo belong to French history. It may be well to observe here, however, that each produced a radical influence upon the policy of England. George III., yielding to the influence of Lord North, sought to compel the colonies to remain dependencies, quite irrespective of public sentiment in the colonies; but for a long time now it has been understood in England and the colonial portion of the British Empire that the question of national independence really rests with the colonists themselves. The New Dominion and Australasia remain in the United Kingdom from actual choice, and no war for independence would be necessary to separation. Thus, it may be said that the Thirteen

LORD NORTH.

Colonies secured for the colonies of the present Great Britain the right which they secured for themselves, its exercise being discretionary with those who ought in all justice to decide it. The Revolutionary War was thus a great lesson of non-intervention in colonial affairs. The Napoleonic war, on the contrary, was a great lesson of intervention. It made England, in a certain high sense, master of Europe, and more disposed to dictate to other nations than to her own colonies.

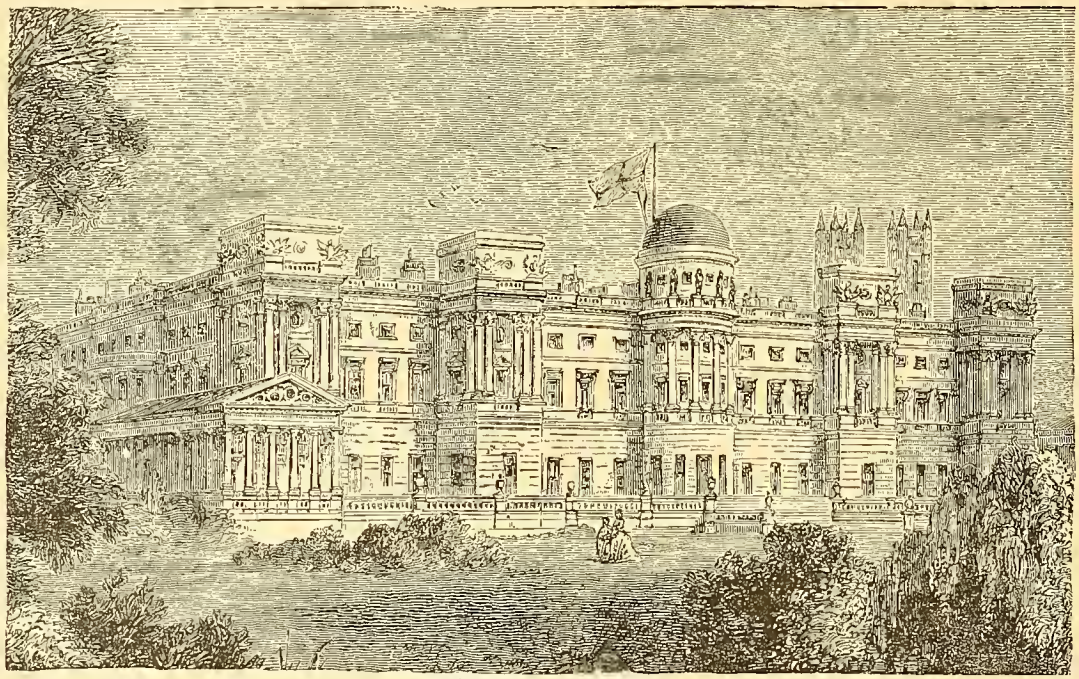


LONDON FROM GREENWICH PARK.

With the consideration of one more topic the reader will be prepared to take an appreciative survey of the present Great Britain. That subject is the corn laws and free trade. Those statutes for the regulation of the grain trade date back to 1360, and their abolition in 1846 was the triumph of the free trade policy in England, a policy which grew out of and proved helpful to the manufacturing interest of the country. The regulations had been changed from time to time, but their constant object had been to protect the manufacturing interest of the country. In the final struggle over the repeal, a struggle lasting several years, and in which Richard Cobden took the leading part for reform, the principles of political economy, the laws of supply and demand, were discussed with great fullness and spirit. Miss Harriet Martineau rendered the cause of free trade immense service by political tracts and novels which brought the arguments of the reformers down to the understanding of the people. Sir Robert Peel, originally

WINDSOR PALACE AND WINDSOR CASTLE.

a protectionist and a leading statesman during the second quarter of the present century, came gradually to adopt the veiws of Cobden, Bright and Martineau. From that time on, the national sentiment, with great unanimity, has been hostile to the doctrine of protection, and at one time the indications were that the enlightened sentiment of the civilized world was undergoing substantially the same process of change wrought in the mind of Peel; but at the present time France and the United States



BUCKINGHAM PALACE.

are strongly protective, and Germany is becoming more and more so. Even in England there are some signs of a reaction.

It is now time to speak of the history of parties in England. There are, and long have been, two great political organizations in England, each with a duly chosen and recognized leader. The original names of these organizations were Whig and Tory. The present appellations are, Liberal and Conservative. Whig is a contraction for *Whiggamore*, southwestern Scotch for drover. The term was introduced in 1648 to designate certain Covenanters from that section of Scotland. In 1679 the opponents of the Court party in England were first called Whiggs, or Whigs. The term Tory is of Irish origin, and was first applied to Catholic outlaws in the reign of Charles II. About the time that the royalists dubbed their opponents Whigs, the latter retorted by applying to their adversaries another no less opprobrious nickname. Gradually each party came to take pride in its name, and all sense of reproach was lost sight of. It was within the present generation, and in designation of their respective characters, that the two parties came to be known as Liberals and Conservatives. The British Empire of the present time, the Great Britain of to-day, has been under the rule, at different times, of two very remarkable political leaders, William E. Gladstone, who still lives and is at this time Premier of Great Britain, and Lord Beaconsfield, lately deceased. The former is a Liberal, the latter

GLADSTONE.

was a Conservative. Mr. Gladstone is also known as a learned scholar, especially in all matters relating to Homer. Beaconsfield, long plain Benjamin Disraeli, achieved some fame as a novelist. Hardly, if any, less deserving of mention is John Bright, the great Commoner, too liberal to be a leader, even of the Liberals. Entering parliament in 1843, possessing rare eloquence, he has always been the especial champion of free trade, free speech, free institutions and progressive ideas generally. During the American Civil War, when many English statesmen, including even Mr. Gladstone, faltered and wavered, he remained the stalwart friend of the Union cause, rendering the United States immense service by his eloquence.

DISRAELI.
(Earl of Beaconsfield.)

Insignificant as the crown is in England, there is one respect in which it is a very important reality. The expense of maintaining it is very considerable. The annual revenue of the royal family from direct appropriation and from estates is about three millions of dollars. The royal palaces are Buckingham, St. James, Kensington, Windsor Castle, Balmoral and Osborne House.

The parliament consists of two bodies, the House of Lords, or Peers, and the House of Commons. The former, which is hereditary, so far as concerns the lay membership, consists of 492 members, inclusive of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops of the established, or Episcopal, church. The number is subject, however, to change, as the creation of new lords is always in order at the pleasure of the sovereign, that is the ministry. The Lord Chancellor is president of the House of Lords. The House of Commons consists of 654 members. Of these 487 are English, including Welsh; 62 Scotch, and 105 Irish. A further classification of the body is this: representatives of boroughs, 360; of counties, 283; of universities, 11. In parliamentary elections there is a household and property qualification, but the right of suffrage has been greatly extended, and manhood suffrage seems to be inevitable in the near future.

The ministry or cabinet consists, in its main offices of a Lord of the Treasury, who is prime minister, or real wielder of the scepter; Lord High Chancellor; Chancellor of the Exchequer; Secretaries of State for the Home Department, Foreign Affairs, the Colonies, War and India; First Lord of the Admiralty; Postmaster General, and Attorney General. These and some other high offices are strictly political, changing whenever the political complexion of the House of Commons changes. The subordinate executive officers are exempt from this dependence upon the fortunes of politics. The Civil Service of Great Britain is conducted upon the plan of retention during good behavior.

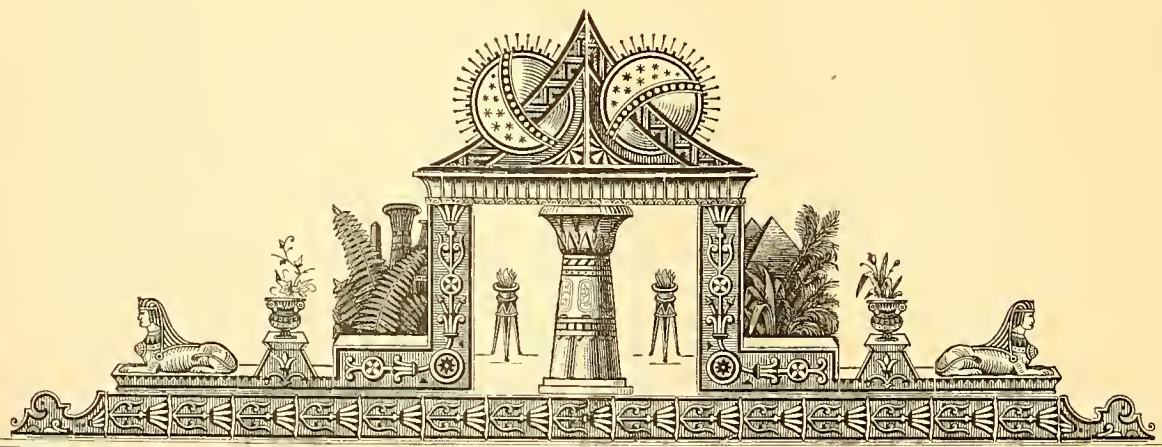
The term United Kingdom applies to England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland, with the little islands of the British group. The term British Empire has a much wider signification. The latter includes all lands and peoples subject to the British crown and constitution, and is the most stupendous empire the world ever saw, with an ever-active power of expansion and absorption. And it must be admitted that as a rule the cause of civilization is advanced by the expansion of British jurisdiction.

In regard to British colonial possessions, Mr. Frederick Martin asserts that they embrace about one-seventh of the land surface of the entire globe, and nearly a fourth of its population. He adds that of this vast dominion, "three million square miles are in America, half a million in Africa, a million in Asia and more than two million and a half in Australia. These colonies are grouped into forty administrative divisions." We add Mr. Martin's *resume* on this subject:

"Of these forty colonies, and groups of colonies, four are in Europe, eleven in or near America, ten in or near Africa, seven in Asia, and eight in Australasia. In Europe the Possessions are, in alphabetical order, first, Cyprus; second, Gibraltar; third, Heligoland; and, fourth, Malta. In America, or adjoining the American continent, the possessions are, first, the Bahamas, a group of some 800 islands and islets, of which twenty are inhabited; second, the Bermudas, a group of about 300 islands, of which fifteen are inhabited; third, the Dominion of Canada, comprising the Provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Manitoba, British Columbia, and (since June 26, 1873) Prince Edward's Island; fourth, the Falkland Islands, a group

of large area, with very few inhabitants; fifth, Guinea, on the continent of South America; sixth, the Honduras, on the continent of Central America; seventh, Jamaica, to which are annexed, by an Act of Parliament, passed in 1873, the Turks and Caicos Islands; eighth, the Leeward Islands, comprising the formerly separate colonies of Antigua, Montserrat, St. Christopher, Nevis, Anguilla, the Virgin Islands, and Dominica, the whole united under an Act of Parliament passed in 1871; ninth, Newfoundland, not yet included in the Dominion of Canada; tenth, the Island of Trinidad; and eleventh, the Windward Islands, comprising the formerly separate colonies of Barbadoes, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada and Tobago. In Africa, and nearest to the African continent, the colonial possessions are, first, the Island of Ascension, in the South Atlantic Ocean; second, the Cape of Good Hope, including British Kaffraria, and other annexations made from 1866 to 1877; third, the Gambia settlement, on the west coast; fourth, the vaguely limited Gold Coast territory, enlarged in 1872 by a cession of old Dutch settlements; fifth, the South African settlement of Griqualand West, proclaimed British territory October 27, 1871; sixth, the Island of Lagos, and territories on the mainland, ceded under treaty of August 6, 1861; seventh, the Island of Mauritius, and its dependencies in the Indian Ocean; eighth, Natal, separated from the Cape of Good Hope in 1856; ninth, the Island of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic; and tenth, the territory of Sierra Leone, on the west coast of Africa. In Asia, the colonial possessions are, first, the town and port of Aden, in Arabia, at the entrance of the Red Sea; second, the Island of Ceylon; third, the Island of Hong Kong; fourth, the Empire of India; fifth, the Island of Labuan, on the coast of Borneo; sixth, the Island of Perim, in the Red Sea; and seventh, the Straits Settlements, comprising the Islands of Singapore and Penang, with the territory of Malacca, in the Indian Archipelago. Finally, in Australasia, the colonial possessions embrace, besides the Fiji Islands east to the mainland of Australia, ceded to Great Britain in 1874, the seven, at present separated, but in all probability to be united, colonies of New South Wales, New Zealand, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria and Western Australia." It is with good reason that Great Britain boasts that upon it the sun never sets.

We are now about to leave England and soon the British Isles, when, for a short time, our course will be among the lands more remote from the sun of modern civilization. For the most part, for several chapters, we shall still be in the British Empire, or in lands virtually controlled by British men-of-war. On every continent the United Kingdom has its possessions. Those in Asia, North America, and the continental islands of far Australasia, will be separately considered, while those in Africa, South America and the West Indies, without as distinctive recognition, will yet receive such attention as their importance may justify.



LITERATURE OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER LXII.

ENGLISH LITERATURE IN GENERAL—DAWN OF LITERATURE IN ENGLAND—SAXON ALFRED—CHAUCER AND CANTERBURY TALES—SPENSER AND THE FAERY QUEEN—PERCY'S RELICS AND MINOR OLD ENGLISH—SHAKSPEARE—COTEMPORARIES OF SHAKSPEARE—BACON—MILTON AND HIS COTEMPORARIES—LITERATURE OF THE RESTORATION—DRYDEN—LOCKE AND NEWTON—POPE AND SWIFT—DEFOE, HUME AND GIBBON—A LITERARY GROUP—HYMNOLOGY—ADDISON AND "THE SPECTATOR"—STEEL AND TRISTRAM SHANDY—LETTERS OF JUNIUS—GOLDSMITH, COWPER AND YOUNG—LITERARY IMPOSTORS—BYRON AND HIS PEERS—HOOD AND BROWNING—LAKE SCHOOL OF POETS—GALLERY OF THE SIX INTELLECTUAL TITANS OF MODERN ENGLISH LETTERS—CHARLOTTE BRONTE AND JANE EYRE—THACKERAY AND DICKENS—MINOR NOVELISTS—CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH MEN OF LETTERS—LATEST TYPE OF LITERATURE IN ENGLAND.

IN one sense the English literature is not simply the literature of England, but it includes all the literature of the English language, in whatever land written. But the literature of England only will be considered, reserving American literature for a subsequent chapter. Some English writers acquired such prominence that they have appeared in previous chapters in connection with the events of their times, but before taking leave of England it will be of interest to take a comprehensive view of the grandest galaxy of authors the world has ever produced, for classic literature, Greek and Latin combined, contains less real genius and intellectual grandeur than our own vernacular, even apart from this continent, can boast.

The earliest name in the literary record of England is *Beowulf*, a long and utterly stupid epic. It is supposed to have been brought to the island by the Saxons when in company with the Angles and the Jutes, they first established themselves in Britain. The old Britons had no literature, at least, if so it perished utterly. The first indubitably English poet was Cædmon, who died in 680. He left a metrical paraphrase of parts of the Bible. His manuscript was lost, and not recovered until 1654. It has no intrinsic merit. The same is true of the oldest English prose, King Alfred's translation from the Latin of the Venerable Bede's ecclesiastical history. Bede belonged to the eighth century and Alfred to the ninth. One line on the title page is suggestive of the relation of old English to modern, also to Latin, or "boclaeden." This line reads, "Aelfred Kyning waes wealhstod thisse bee and hie of boclaedene on Englise wende"—King Alfred was the translator of this book, and turned it from book-language into English. Bede's history of England was an important work for the information it affords, but it is hardly a part of English literature. The same is true of the somewhat apocryphal biography of Alfred by Asser, the last of the ante-Norman authors. Asser belonged to the first years of the tenth century. Three centuries later Layamon produced a

narrative in verse of Celtic traditions, called *Brut*, and Orm, a series of dull homilies in verse, called *Ormulum*. Some idea of this poetry may be gathered from the complet,—

"Thiss boc is nammed Orrmulum
" Forrtbi that Orrm itt wrohhte."

The first really meritorious English writer was Geoffrey Chaucer, born in 1328, died in 1400. He is called "the Father of English Poetry." He was more than that, for England can hardly be said to have had any literature, prose or poetry, before his day, certainly nothing of real value. His writings were somewhat voluminous, but his *Canterbury Tales* stands incomparably higher than any other of his works. It derives its name from several pilgrims on their way to pay homage at the shrine of Thomas à Becket, and who, being guests at the same inn, beguiled the time by telling stories. One verse will serve to illustrate the nature of Chaucer's English and the plot of the *Tales*,

CHAUCER.

In Southwerk at the Tabard as I lay,
Redy to wenden on my pilgrimage
To Canterbury with ful devout corage,
At night was come into that hostelrie
Wel Nyne and twenty in a companye
Of sondry folk, by aventure yfalle
In felowschipe, and pilgryms were thei alle
That toward Canterbury wolden ryde.

It will be observed that the variations from good modern English are mainly in the matter of orthography, and it was not until the printing press was invented that uniformity herein began to prevail.

It was not until the middle of the sixteenth century that the second truly great name appeared in English literature, Edmund Spenser, the author of *The Faery Queene*. Before his day Bishop Percy had collected the ballads of the language, and *Percy's Reliques of Ancient English Poetry* is a delightful volume, but the ballads themselves are anonymous. Sir Thomas More, a famous jurist in the reign of Henry VIII., wrote an ever-notable description of an ideal republic upon an imaginary island, *Utopia*. The work was composed in Latin. Cotemporaneous with Spenser was Sir Philip Sidney. He was a writer of much elegance, but no very marked power. Spenser's masterpiece was in part an imitation of "Piers Ploughman," a cotemporary of Chaucer who was very highly esteemed, but whose poetry is more homiletical than poetical. But in power of imagination and variety of allegorical conception it is a remarkable production. It is very long without being complete. It cannot be read cursorily with profit, but its careful perusal yields an ample reward.

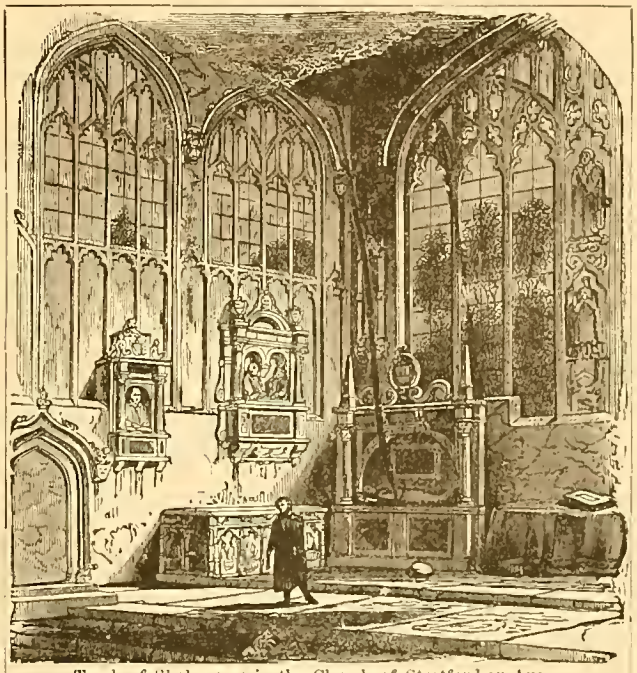
There are only three English books older than Shakspeare which are much read, even by the scholarly few, *Canterbury Tales*, *Percy's Reliques*, or *Relics*, and *The Faery Queene*. All else might be obliterated with comparatively slight loss, except as they may be useful in historical research.

It was on the 26th day of April, 1564, in the small town of Stratford-on-Avon that WILLIAM SHAKSPEARE was born, and his death occurred on the 23d day of the same month just fifty-two years later. His family was humble and his education limited. According to all accounts he was the most contradictory character in all history, the supreme enigma of mankind. At the age of eighteen he was married to Anne Hathaway, seven years his senior, an altogether commonplace woman. At twenty-two he left his native village for London. He had a keen eye for business, and when he had acquired capital enough to return to Stratford and be one of the first men of the town he did so, evincing utter indifference to literary fame. At London he secured employment at a theater in some humble capacity. As an actor he did not excel, but he was a capital manager. Wanting better plays than he could procure in any other way, he set about re-writing and then writing dramas himself. He wrote as the demands of his own theater required, and it is said that he never revised his work. If a play served the purposes of his stage, that was enough. Besides a large number of sonnets, some of them very exquisite, and several long but minor poems, Shaks-

SHAKSPEARE.

peare produced thirty-seven dramas. Ten of these plays are based on English history and bear the names of English kings from King John to Henry VIII. In no play, it is said, did the great dramatist take the trouble to invent a plot for himself, or scruple to use old material if it suited his purpose; but under the touch of his genius the commonplace was transformed and transfigured. Hallam wrote of him:

"The name of Shakspeare is the greatest in our literature—it is the greatest in all literature. No man ever came near him in the creative powers of the mind; no man ever had such strength at once, and such variety of imagination. Coleridge has most felicitously applied to him a Greek epithet, given before to I know not whom, certainly none so deserving of it—*μυριόνους*, the *thousand-souled* Shakspeare."



Tomb of Shakspeare in the Church of Stratford-on-Avon.

Harlowe, Green and Ben Jonson, Beaumont and Fletcher, Ford and Shirley, are ranked as Shakspearean dramatists, but it was only because they were contemporaries. In point of merit they are not at all comparable. They added somewhat to the honors of that golden age of English literature, but not much. The Elizabethan Age was rendered illustrious by two names, Shakspeare and Bacon, representatives of very different elements of society in their origins and of widely different departments of thought in the development of their intellectual resources. The drama was not even respectable, and no doubt Shakspeare was ashamed of his calling, and when he had accumulated a competency wished to ignore and keep out of sight the means by which he had acquired it. Bacon, on the other hand, belonged to the nobility, and as an author was a peer in the aristocracy of letters.

BEN JONSON.

Francis Bacon was born in 1566, and died in 1626. His father, Sir Nicholas Bacon, was Lord Keeper of the Great Seal of England, a high position at court. The son chose the profession of law, and at an early age was appointed as the Queen's Counsel under Elizabeth. When James came to the throne he was knighted, with the title of Baron Verulam, and later, Viscount St. Albans. In the line of his profession he rose successively from Queen's Counsel to Solicitor-General, Attorney-General and Lord Chancellor. In the latter position of Chief Justice of the realm, he was accused of taking bribes and the charge was sustained. He was deprived of his office, fined, and rendered incapable of holding any office thereafter. His ambition to shine at court and in the society of those who had more money than brains, whelmed him in ruin and misery. His last days were sad and desolate. But however bitter his failure from the standpoint of personal ambition, his life was an epoch in thought. His writings are voluminous, but the chief book from his pen was, or

FRANCIS BACON.

is, *Novum Organum*, fitly described by himself when he says, "This New Instrument is the science of a better and more perfect use of reason in the investigation of things, and of the true aims of the understanding." It effected a revolution in philosophy. The Baconian method, as compared with philosophy prior to his day, is well suggested by Prof. Backus in the following observations: "Twenty centuries had elapsed after Aristotle had shown his method of searching after truth before Bacon undertook to introduce a new method. Aristotle made thought active; Bacon aimed to make it useful. Aristotle made logic the fundamental science, and considered metaphysics of greater importance than physics. His theory, carried into practice, produced twenty centuries of fruitlessness; two centuries and a half of Bacon's theory in practice have revolutionized the literary, the commercial, the political, the religious, the scientific world. The ancients had a philosophy of words; Bacon called for a philosophy of works. His glory is founded upon a union of speculative power with practical utility, which were never so combined before. He neglected nothing as too small, despised nothing as too low, by which our happiness could be augmented; in him, above all, were combined boldness and prudence, the intensest enthusiasm and the plainest common sense."

To the same age as Bacon, only a little later, belong Francis Quarles and George Herbert, quaint writers of deeply pietistic poetry. Sir Thomas Browne, who wrote prose, was really more poetic than they, for his *Religio Medici* is one of the most facinating of essays, often vague but always charming.

The Civil War and Commonwealth which followed so soon after the Elizabethan age produced a plentiful crop of earnest prose writers who contributed much to the formation of the English language as a suitable vehicle of grand thoughts. Jeremy Taylor and Thomas Fuller, the royalists, Richard Baxter and John Milton, the nonconformists, discussed the politics and theology of their day (very nearly the same in many respects) with great ability and fullness. Milton's essay on liberty is one of the finest pieces of prose composition in any language. But the literary glory of that period was Milton's *Paradise Lost*. It was composed after the poet had become blind. The two great epic poets, Homer and Milton, were both of them sightless. The latter sang the war in heaven between the loyal forces of heaven and the rebellious Angels, led by Satan. That supposed conflict, together with the fall of man, furnished the basis of the great structure. Wordsworth has happily characterized Milton in these lines:

JOHN MILTON.

> Thy soul was like a star and dwelt apart;
> Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like the sea—
> Pure as the naked heavens, majestic, free;
> So didst thou travel on life's common way
> In cheerful godliness; and yet thy heart
> The lowliest duties on herself did lay.

The Restoration under Charles II. brought to the fore a different class of writers. Samuel Butler was the most notable poet of that period. His *Hudibras* is a brilliant satire upon the Puritans and Puritanism. The wit is keen and pitiless. To the same period, but on the opposite side of the religious and political issues of the day, stands John Bunyan, whose *Pilgrim's Progress* is still widely read for its wealth of allegory and its depth of piety. He was a martyr to his religion, and while languishing in jail composed the work which has made him immortal. A strolling tinker by trade, some think him a gipsy by descent. Another noted writer of this period was Izaak Walton. His *Complete Angler* is refreshingly free from theology, politics and ethics. It is simply what it professes to be, a treatise upon fishing, but so capitally done that whether one be interested in piscatorial sport or not, one can not fail to be delighted.

After Milton the next really great name in English verse was John Dryden, born in 1631, died in 1700. In character he was a time-server, a puritan under Cromwell, a papist under James II. He was the latter's poet laureate. His writings were voluminous. He was the first real critic in English literature. His influence was very great, and upon the whole very good. He lives in the literary records of his country more for his usefulness in forming the literary style of the language than for the intrinsic merits of his writings.

The next great name in English literature was the philosopher, John Locke, a cotemporary of Dryden.

His *Essay on the Human Understanding* is justly ranked as second only to Bacon's *Novum Organum*. In the metaphysical world his work is, as Hallam expresses it, "the first real chart of the coasts, wherein some may be laid down incorrectly, but the general relations of all are perceived." Locke was born 1632 and died in 1704. Sir Isaac Newton was born in 1642 and died in 1727. The latter effected a revolution in natural science equal to that of Bacon in philosophy. His *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica*, may be set down as the corner-stone of modern science. The work of Roger Bacon had been forgotten, and had to be done over again, with readjustment to the times, and that not by an imitator, but by an original genius, and Sir Isaac met the requirement.

In poetry the eighteenth century opened with Alexander Pope. His easy flowing rhymes and sharp wit have been greatly admired. In his day he was thought to be a prodigy, but he lacks staying qualities as a poet. He is not much read at the present day, except by those who do so from a certain sense of duty. His translations of Homer have been eclipsed. His friend, Jonathan Swift, was something of a poet, but whether he wrote in verse or prose, he was a terrible satirist, the fiercest that ever held a pen. His *Voyages of Gulliver* is the greatest of his works. He produced a great many pamphlets on current topics. His style was intensely Saxon; his life detestable and miserable.

The first great English novelist was Daniel Defoe, born in 1661, died 1731. His *Robinson Crusoe* is still read with undiminished interest by each new generation, and seems to bear a charmed life. His imaginary history of the Great Plague in London is a strangely realistic and fascinating narrative. Fielding and Smollet who followed him may have surpassed him in genius for invention, but they soiled their pages with impurities which put the novel under the ban until redeemed by the unsullied pen of Sir Walter Scott. But prior to Scott came another Scotchman, David Hume, of great power. He was a master of philosophical reasoning and historical narration. His *Moral and Philosophical Essays* and his *History of England* are the two pillars of his fame. Edward Gibbon, who was born in 1737 and died in 1794, was the second great historian of English literature, as Hume was the first. His *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* was accepted as a standard work almost from the first, and time does not dim the luster of his great name.

In the latter half of the eighteenth century flourished a group of ethical, political, theological, critical and poetical writers who, without reaching the high plane of really first-class merit, deserve honorable mention. These were Dr. Samuel Johnson, the lexicographer; Edmund Burke, the political orator and essayist; Adam Smith, the father of the science of Political Economy. Smith's most important work was *Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*. Bishop Butler and William Paley wrote in defense of revealed religion against the attacks of the skeptics treatises which are still used as text books in our schools, and arsenals from which are drawn weapons used in fighting for orthodoxy.

The eighteenth century was rich in sacred poetry and didactic prose. The hymns in use in the church were largely composed in that century. Isaac Watts belonged to the first part of it. Montgomery says of Dr. Watts, "He was almost the inventor of hymns in the English language." The intense realization of religious truth which marked that period deeply colored its literature. It was the fashion to assume piety, in verse especially, and cater to the tastes of the pious, as in the case of Watts' contemporary, Dr. Young, who though a frivolous man of the world was the author of the lugubrious but once very popular *Night Thoughts*.

Joseph Addison, the accomplished essayist, was born in 1672 and died in 1719. He was a very popular poet in his day, but his poetry soon dropped out of sight. His real claim to honorable mention rests upon his contributions to and establishment of the *Spectator*, the *Tatler* and the *Guardian*, especially the former. Those publications were forerunners of the more modern newspaper. They did not give much news, but they discussed questions of current interest much in the method of the present editorial of the better sort. Those essays have been read and studied as models of good, unimpassioned and prosaic prose ever since their publication. Addison's friend, Richard Steele, was a co-laborer with him in these enterprises. Many of the papers were contributed by others, Swift and Berkley among the number, for to this period belonged the famous divine and philosopher who called out Byron's brilliant sally:

> "If Bishop Berkley says there is no matter,
> It is no matter what he says."

A little later came Laurence Sterne. He was of Irish descent, born in 1713, died in 1768. His *Tristram Shandy*, published in 1761, was the best novel ever written in English until the days of Sir Walter Scott. His *Sentimental Journey* was designed as a supplement to the great novel, but it was not by any means its equal in merit.

In 1769, and from that on until 1772, with occasional interruptions, appeared in the *Public Advertiser*, a London journal, a series of letters on politics signed "Junius." They produced an immense sensation. It was never known who wrote them. Vast research and elaborate arguments have been expended on their probable authorship, but to little purpose. Sir Philip Francis is generally thought to have the best claim to the honor, but the mystery is really insoluble. Those letters were tremendously influential. To this day they are unrivaled for power of invective and incisive criticism.

Oliver Goldsmith was a very remarkable character. Like Thomas Gray, who wrote the elegy which has immortalized his name, he wrote a little good poetry, "The Deserted Village" being the best; but his best production was that charming romance, *The Vicar of Wakefield*. It is a most delightful picture of a country parson and his family in the eighteenth century. The popular comedy, *She Stoops to Conquer*, was also from his pen. William Cowper was a profoundly religious poet of that period. The intensity of his belief nearly unsettled his reason and brought upon him a melancholy akin to mania. But his muse was capable of sublime flights, and once, in *John Gilpin*, struck a humorous vein.

GOLDSMITH.

The latter part of this century was notable for literary imposition. The most successful was that of James Macpherson, author of *Ossian*. That elaborate poem has very great merit, and is held in high repute, being still much read. It purports to have been the work of an Irish bard of the far-away days of Celtic tradition. Macpherson strenuously insisted that he merely translated an epic which was composed originally in the Gaelic or Eise dialect. Thomas Chatterton, the poor boy-poet who starved to death in a London garret at the age of eighteen, was strangely infatuated with the mania for imposture. He wrote some very delightful verses at the age of eleven, and might have developed into something grand had he not fallen a victim to the passion for literary deception.

Robert Burns and Sir Walter Scott were the crowning glory of English literature in the eighteenth century, but they belong to Scotland rather than England, as Thomas Moore does to Ireland.

The most famous name in the early part of the nineteenth century was Lord Byron, born in 1788. He was only thirty-six years of age at the time of his death, but he left behind him a large body of poetry, very much of which bids fair to be incorporated into the immortal part of English literature. Like his friend Shelley, the author of *Queen Mab* and other deeply emotional and somewhat fantastic poems, he was morbid in the extreme. His *Childe Harold*, *Manfred* and, *Don Juan*, and in fact, nearly every thing he wrote, fairly teem with emotion. John Keats, author of *Endymon*, who died of a broken heart, the victim of cruel criticism, belonged to the same class, in both time and type of genius. There was a circle of poets of sentiment in which Byron, Shelley and Keats were foremost, but which was enlarged by the presence of Leigh Hunt and Walter Savage Landor. They did much to infuse into modern thought Greek ideas of culture. They drew attention from religious subjects to the higher ranges of mundane thought and activity.

LORD BYRON.

Thomas Hood, born in 1799, died 1845, belonged to no set. His genius was strictly individual. His *Bridge of Sighs* and *Song of the Shirt* are most exquisitely pathetic. But he excelled in wit. His humor is of the very highest order. Mrs. Browning, the most wonderful woman in the whole list of poets, was born in 1809 and lived until 1861. Her *Aurora Leigh* is a masterpiece, and many of her

minor poems are marvels of beauty and power. Her husband, Robert Browning, still lives, and is a poet of high rank, but curiously obscure in his expressions.

ALFRED TENNYSON.

During the present century England has had three poets laureate, or poets of the court, namely, Robert Southey, William Wordsworth and Alfred Tennyson. The latter has held the position thirty-two years. Southey held it thirty years, namely, from 1813 to 1843. He was a prolific writer and his poetry has good points, but it is weak and thin. At the present time it is seldom read. Wordsworth and Coleridge formed, with Southey, what is known as the Lake School. They were free from indelicacies, and did much to cultivate a wholesome taste and a kindly appreciation of the poetic in little everyday things. Coleridge occasionally struck out into the marvelous. His *Ancient Mariner* and *Christabel* are inexplicable.

THACKERAY.

Charlotte Bronte, the invalid daughter of a country clergyman, produced in 1847 a story which created a profound sensation, *Jane Eyre*. She was then twenty-nine years of age. She lived eight years longer and wrote two other good novels, *Shirley* and *Villette*; but upon the first rests her claim to a niche in the temple of immortal fame. Thackeray, who was born in 1811 and survived until 1863, shares with Charles Dickens, who was born a year later and survived his great peer seven years, the honor of being the greatest of novelists. Those two names tower above all others. The former set forth English high life; the latter English low life. Such, in a general way, is the difference between them. No one before or since has reached the altitude of their creative faculties. Not far from them, however, stands "George Eliot," a woman of most marvelous powers as a novelist and very considerable ability as a poet.

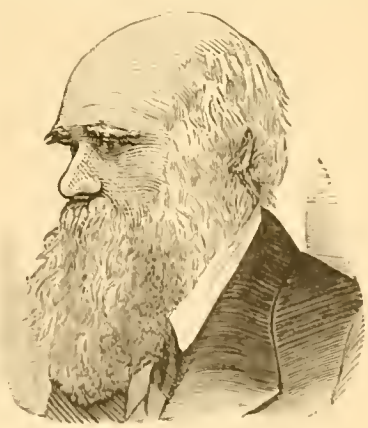
CHARLES DICKENS.

GEORGE ELIOT.

Charles Reed, Wilkie Collins, Anthony Trollope, Bulwer and Disraeli are to be ranked among the better of our second-class English novelists of this century.

JOHN STUART MILL.

There are many writers of note who have made valuable contributions to English literature during the present period. Thomas Carlyle, the fierce hater of shams and democracy, John Stuart Mill, the great apostle of Agnosticism, or positivism, Herbert Spencer, the philosopher of science, and Tyndall, Darwin and Huxley, the disciples of pure science, are only a few of the great contemporary names of English men of letters. Macaulay belonged to the middle period of this century. The literature of England, once a mere rivulet has now widened out into a vast gulf.



CHARLES R. DARWIN.

SCOTLAND AND THE SCOTCH.

CHAPTER LXIII.

SCOTIA AND NOVA SCOTIA—THE PICTS—INDIRECT CONNECTION OF THE EARLY SCOTCH AND THE ANGLO-SAXONS—CONVERSION OF SCOTLAND—FERGUS THE SCOTCH-IRISHMAN—EDWIN AND EDINBURGH—ST. COLUMBA AND THE SCOTCH NAME—SCOTTISH BLOOD—CONSTANTINE II. AND SUBORDINATION TO ENGLAND—DUNCAN AND MACBETH—JAMES I.—PROGRESS AND FEUDALISM—ROBERT BRUCE AND INDEPENDENCE—ROBERT THE STEWARD AND THE HOUSE OF STUART—DAVID II.—JAMES I.—JAMES V.—HENRY VIII. OF ENGLAND AND THE SCOTCH CROWN—MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS—JAMES VI. OF SCOTLAND, JAMES I. OF ENGLAND—A NATIONAL PARADOX—JOHN KNOX—UNION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM COMPLETED—SOME SCOTCH CHARACTERISTICS—SCOTCH LITERATURE—BURNS, SCOTT, AND CARLYLE.

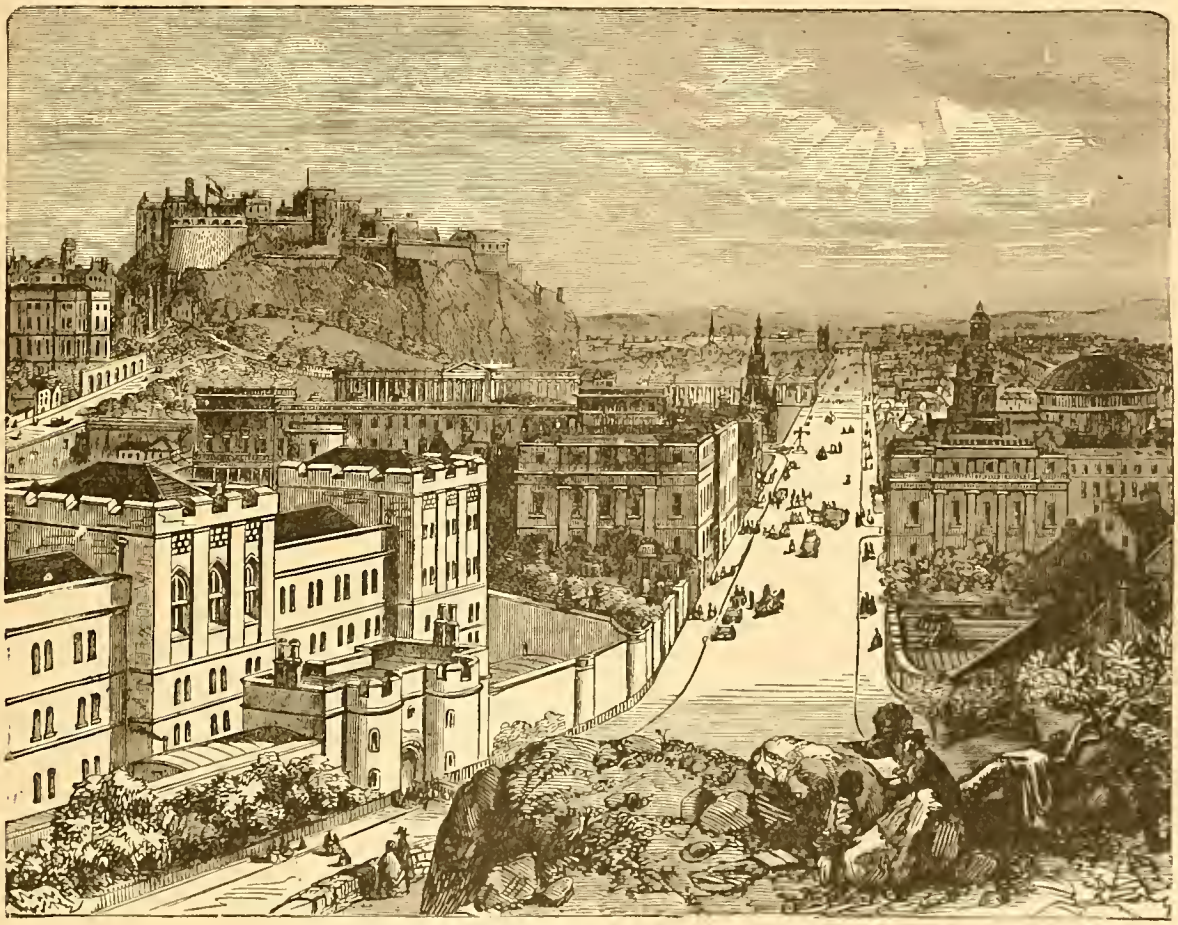
TO the ancients, Great Britain, by whatever name called, was one country. The name Scotland was not used to designate the northern portion of the island until about a thousand years ago. The Latin term *Scotia* applied originally to Ireland, and at one time was not distinguishable from *Hibernia*. Indeed, Scotland was known as *Nova Scotia* originally. *Caledonia* was another primitive title for that part of the island. Like Wales, Scotland gradually acquired distinctiveness as the old Britons or Picts retreated from their conquerors, Romans, Saxons, Angles, Jutes, Danes and Normans. The Picts preferred independence in the back country to dependence in the native portion of their island. The Romans never attempted to push beyond the frith of Fay, and the wall they built between the Forth and the Clyde finally served as a dividing line between the primitive Scotch and the English. When the Romans withdrew from Britain, the Scotch, or Picts, thougth it was no robbery for them to reoccupy their former lands, and so strong were they that the Romanized Britons felt compelled to seek succor from abroad, and called to their aid, as we have seen in the chapter on "Old England," the Anglo-Saxons. Never was an invasion fraught with more importance, and the Scotch might justly claim that there would never have been any English people, properly speaking, had it not been for their predatory ancestors in the last years of the fifth century and the first of the sixth.

The introduction of Christianity into Scotland is placed by some as early as 446. But when the more civilized Celts of Ireland, who had previously been converted to Christianity, crossed over to Scotland in 503, and under the lead of Fergus established a kingdom on the western coast, the country was for the most part given up to rude paganism. The records of that period are exceedingly vague and unsatisfactory, but Fergus must have been a brave and wise ruler, for his little kingdom was permanently established, and finally developed into the chief state or tribe of the country.

Half a century before Fergus, the Highland chief Edwin had founded Edinburgh, and in 836 a descendant of Fergus, Kenneth, became King of the Lowlands, transferring his capital from Celtic Tortevoil to Stratherne, the ancient capital of the Picts.

Between Edwin and Fergus appears no name of note, and between Fergus and Kenneth only one, St. Columba, the Irish saint who spent his life in evangelizing the Picts. From 563 to 597 he labored untiringly and with great success. The adoption by the primitive races of the religion brought over by the Celts did much to bring about the complete coalition of the two races, and to give the ascendancy to the invaders. It may be observed that the Celts of Ireland long protested against the application of the term Scotch to the combined people, insisting that they alone were Scotch. It is a curious fact that a few emigrants should have thus taken from the mother country its very name. It is as if the term New England had gradually changed to England, and by some inexplicable jugglery old England itself had been compelled to adopt a new name. It may be set down as a remarkable instance of "unconscious robbery."

The Scotch have other blood in their veins besides the two strains mentioned. From the Danes and other Scandinavians they received large accretions, also from the Saxons and the Normans of England. The Teutonic element is not predominant, but it is very considerable. No people of Europe have such variety of ancestry as the inhabitants of the Lowlands of Scotland. The Highlanders are descended almost wholly from the original or prehistoric inhabitants of the island.



VIEW OF EDINBURGH—EDINBURGH CASTLE IN THE DISTANCE.

The next royal name of note after Kenneth was

Constantine II., great grandson of the former. His reign extended from 900 to 943. He acknowledged subordination to the English crown as the price of assistance in the interminable wars of the period, but only to retract his fealty when the immediate cause of it was removed, and then a conflict with England resulted. Constantine laid down his crown voluntarily, repaired to a monastery to prepare for death, leaving the throne to a near kin, Malcolm I.

The grandson and successor of Malcolm was the King Duncan of the play of Macbeth. The monarch of the latter name was not the false friend Shakspeare represents, nor was the real Lady Macbeth the monster of the stage. The historical account differs widely from the histrionic representation. Her brother, the lawful heir to the throne, had been cruelly put to death to make room for Duncan the Usurper. A battle was fought in 1040 between the two factions, terminating in the defeat and death of Duncan. History says of Macbeth, "He governed Scotland with a firm hand and great wisdom, and his reign was a period of great national prosperity." He and his queen were liberal friends of the poor. In 1057 he shared the fate of Duncan, the son of the latter coming to the throne. About this time William the Conqueror subjugated England and placed Scotland under vassalage.

The next noteworthy name in the royal annals of Scotland was David, who flourished about the middle of the twelfth century. Under him Scotland made much progress in civilization.

The wars of Wallace and Bruce for Scottish independence form a part of English history, and were recorded in a previous chapter. That struggle cost the country a vast amount of blood, but from a national point of view it was a good investment, for it so far broke down the barriers of clan that Scotland became in reality one country. The treaty which terminated that long war dates from 1328. Thirteen years later the parliament of Scotland admitted the commercial towns to representation. From that time to the consummation of the union with England, nearly four centuries, the "the third estate" was a great power in Scotland.

The death of Robert Bruce brought to the throne his son, David II., then only eight years of age. War soon broke out afresh between England and Scotland. In the battle of Neville's Cross, fought in 1346, David was defeated and taken prisoner. His final ransom cost 100,000 marks. Otherwise his reign was uneventful. It extended to 1370. At his death, there being no son to take the crown, it passed to his sister's son, Robert the Steward, who took the scepter as Robert II. With him began the dynasty of the Stuarts which became best known in connection with England.

The first Stuart to distinguish himself was James I., who reigned from 1424 to 1436. He was abreast of his age at its best, and did much to systematize the government and advance the interests of the people. He was a poet of some merit. A few fugitive productions attributed to him still exist to attest his talent. Under him the baronial power was at its height. Douglas was the leader of the defiant feudal lords. James II. succeeded in breaking the power of the chiefs. The genius of Sir Walter Scott has clothed with perpetual radiance the struggle of that period. From the standpoint of history, divested of the glamour of romance, the Scottish annals of those times are simply the record of interminable civil and border warfare. Generally the English crown claimed and received some slight recognition of sovereignty beyond the Tweed, but otherwise the Highlands and the Lowlands were alike free from foreign domination.

Scotland should hold the memory of James I. in profound respect and lively gratitude. He was assassinated by a base conspiracy and a brilliant reign closed in darkness. It was a great calamity to the nation. Political assassinations generally are.

A long series of civil wars, a chronic state of anarchy almost, followed. The chiefs of clans would brook no authority. Feudalism had nowhere a firmer hold than in Scotland, and the nobility lived for the most part in hostile isolation.

It was not until the reign of James V., a contemporary of Henry VII. of England, that really amicable relations between the crown and the nobles were established, and that by affability rather than force. About the court of James the Fifth at Edinburgh gathered luxury, and the chieftains found it more agreeable to bask in the courtly sunshine than share the vicissitudes of war, as depicted in the Scottish lays. Many of them plunged wildly into dissipation, but even their vices were public benefactions, for while they revelled the common people were left to the pursuit of the paths of peace, and Scotland,

hitherto frenzied with contention, enjoyed contentment. Fisheries were encouraged, a navy built, and commerce sprang up. The king married Margaret, daughter of the Tudor Henry VII., and thus laid the foundation of the union of the two kingdoms of the island.

All went smoothly until after the accession of HenryVIII. to the English crown. That king hated Scotland, or rather coveted the sovereignty of Scotland. In an evil hour James was provoked into war with his more powerful neighbor. The result was disastrous. The Scotch navy was destroyed and the army signally defeated at Flodden Heights, September 9, 1513. The slaughter was terrible and the overthrow complete. The great king himself was among the slain, leaving an infant to inherit the throne, James V.

John Knox Preaching to Queen Mary.

The queen mother, Margaret, was made regent. The old feud between the crown and the nobility soon broke out with renewed virulence, secretly aggravated and intensified by Henry, who was as bad a brother as husband. It must be admitted that Margaret was as unfaithful to her marital vows as her brother, and her personal vices, and the crimes to which they led, served to keep the country in a state of misery. But all that was no excuse for her brother Henry.

At last the child became a man and was allowed as early as seventeen years of age to be his own master.

We now return to James V. He was a ruler of great ability. He strove assiduously to free his country from foreign dictation. It had become little better than a shuttlecock for French and English battledore. James succeeded in commanding the respect of his royal peers and gaining for Scotland an honorable rank among nations, and all this while yet a youth. He could have married Henry's daughter, Mary, or another Mary, the Spanish Princess of Portugal (Spain and Portugal then being one), but he preferred an alliance with the daughter of the king of France. The fruit of that marriage was the beautiful and unhappy Mary, Queen of Scots, whose melancholy career forms a part of the history of England, and was narrated under the Tudors. Her son, James VI. of Scotland, was James of England, the first British sovereign of the house of Stuarts. In him was secured the "married calm" of a perpetual union between England and Scotland, no longer two nations, but two made one, England being the one.

It is hardly too much to say, paradoxical as it may sound, that when Scotland ceased to exist its existence began. So long as it was a kingdom, with its interminable feudatory and border warfare, it was little better than a heroic barbarian. But when those civil wars were over the energies of the people took a direction which reflected the highest honor upon the nation, preparing the way for splendid achievements.

Mary, Queen of Scots.

The first pre-eminence of Scotland was in the line of church reform. With Henry VIII. and his motive the Scotch had no sympathy, but with the reformation as pushed by Luther, and above all by Calvin, it had the deepest

sympathy. Among those who sat at the feet of John Calvin and imbibed his austere theology and republican polity in matters ecclesiastic, was John Knox. He returned from Geneva to Edinburgh to be the great defender of Protestantism, the bold assailant of the Romish church with which Mary the queen was in close affiliation. Out of the movement in which he was the acknowledged leader grew not only the Kirk of Scotland, but Presbyterianism in America, with its many branches and mighty membership. Wherever a Presbyterian bell calls to prayer or spire points to heaven there unconscious homage is paid to the religious genius of Scotland. Persecution could not stay the progress of Presbyterianism, and the nation soon became substantially united in the rejection of all intervention from Rome. The Confession of Faith was adopted by the Scotch Parliament in 1560, and to-day Scotland stands in theology substantially on that creed, except that a somewhat liberalizing tendency is manifest. Scotland is the most evangelically orthodox land on the globe, and of all Christian people the least given to heresy. They are especially distinguished for the strict observance of Sunday as a day of rest.

The crowns of Scotland and England were united forever in the year 1603. Separate parliaments were maintained for a century. The union, the complete consolidation of the countries, dates from 1707. At that time the population was 1,050,000. It is now about three times that amount. The great vice of the people is drunkenness. The ratio of illegitimacy is also exceptionally large. In the eighteenth century vagabondage was something appalling, "tramps" being the curse of the country; but with good laws came industry and thrift. At home and abroad, especially abroad, the Scotch have shown remarkable ability in the prudent management of great business enterprises.

It only remains to speak of the literature of the Scotch people, which, as already observed, is a part of English literature.

The supreme name in Scottish literature is Robert Burns, whose works have well been called "The Songs of the People." He touched and won the heart as no other singer ever did. For the most part, he followed the Gaelicized English of the common people in his own country. His genius lifted a form of speech from the level of provincialism to the lofty eminence of a classic. Personally the victim of misfortune, his life darkened by poverty and misery, he is now in the enjoyment of a most enviable posthumous fame. Burns was born in 1759 and survived until 1796. His life was unspeakably sad. The son of a humble peasant of Ayrshire, his early advantages were exceedingly meager. Through life he had a hard struggle with poverty. He died with the shadow of the jail for debtors on his heart. His somewhat voluminous correspondence shows him to have been a master of exquisite prose. It has been said that Shakspeare gave us the Bible of secular literature and Burns its hymn-book.

ROBERT BURNS.

Sir Walter Scott is the second great name in Scottish literature. Burns employed the provincialisms of his country in his songs, while Scott wrote the pure English, but in both his poetry and his novels he showed himself to be a loyal Scotchman. He was born in 1771 and died in 1832. He was educated at Edinburgh university. He was raised to the peerage in 1820 in recognition of his literary services. In the domain of the historical novel he has never been equaled.

SIR WALTER SCOTT.

Scotland can boast great eminence in metaphysics. The philosophers Hume, Reid and Hamilton were Scotchmen. But the greatest of Scotland's sons, after Burns and Scott, was Thomas Carlyle, critic and historian. In him are seen the strength and acuteness which characterize the nation. He was born in 1795 and died in 1880. He spent many years in London, but never ceased to be a thorough Scotchman.

THOMAS CARLYLE.

IRELAND AND THE IRISH.

CHAPTER LXIV.

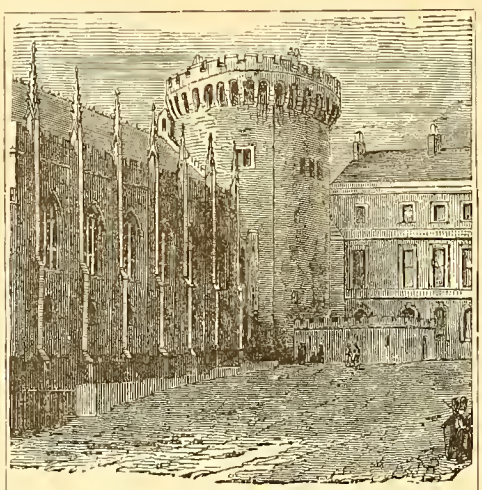
SITUATION, AREA, ROADS AND PRODUCTS OF IRELAND—ST. PATRICK—LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE—COUNTIES AND PROVINCES—IRISH LINEN—ENGLISH RULE IN IRELAND—THE BATTLE OF THE BOYNE—DANIEL O'CONNEL AND PARNELL—REVOLUTION AND REFORM—EMIGRATION FROM IRELAND AND IMMIGRATION TO AMERICA—IRISH LAND LAW—IRISH CITIES—EDUCATION IN IRELAND—EMMET AND "THE UNITED IRISHMEN"—FENIAN BROTHERHOOD—THE LAND LEAGUE AND THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION.

THERE is no more fertile land beneath the sun than Ireland, known to the Romans as Hibernia, to the Celts as Erin, or Scotia. Its area is only 31,874 square miles, or, including the nearly two hundred lesser isles belonging to it, 32,531. The Irish Sea separates it from England, with St. George's channel between it and Scotland. The soil is too moist, the rainfall too abundant for grain raising to the best advantage. The bogs of the low lands are a prominent feature of the island, but grass grows luxuriantly, and the yield of potatoes is enormous. The only danger in the case of the latter is that the wet soil will breed decay, or the seeds of it, before the crop can be secured. Flax is a product for which the country is well adapted. These three, grass, potatoes and flax, have been peculiarly significant in making Irish history, as will appear presently

ST. PATRICK IN IRELAND.

Irish history can hardly be said to extend farther back than the fifth century when Christianity was introduced. Before that time the barbaric tribes of the island were almost unknown, or if known, little regarded. The conversion of the island was undertaken by St. Patrick, who is its patron saint. He was a Frenchman according to some, a Scotchman according to others. Taken captive in war, he was sold into Ireland where he remained six years. During that time he seems to have conceived a strong interest in the people, for some twenty years after

leaving there he returned as a missionary of the cross, spending over thirty years in his holy work. Dates are obscure, but all this was certainly in the fifth century, probably in the early part of it. His death is fixed for March 17th, with wide variations in the year, and that day is observed by the Irish people as sacred to his memory. Confused as is the biography of this man, there are extant two undoubtedly genuine productions of his pen, the chief being his "Confession," wherein he affords an interesting view of his theological opinions. Curiously, none of the dogmas peculiar to Romanism, as compared with Protestantism, find a place in St. Patrick's Confession. An absurd tradition attributes to his miraculous power the banishment from the island of toads and snakes. Whatever else he did or failed to do, he surely succeeded most remarkably in his mission as a Christian propagandist.



THE TOWER, DUBLIN CASTLE.

The original language of Ireland was Gaelic, now spoken, with some variations, in the Hebrides and Highlands of Scotland, in the Isle of Man, and in some sections of Ireland. There are about 100,000 of the people who speak nothing else, and many more who speak both it and English. There is a small body of literature in this language, but it is devoid of much merit. The Irishmen who have excelled as authors have used the English language. Thomas Moore and the historian Lecky may be mentioned as Irishmen who have enriched literature.

The island is divided into thirty-two counties and the four provinces of Leinster, Munster, Connaught and Ulster. The latter is in the north and largely settled by Protestants, many of them of Scotch descent. The relations of landlord and tenant are regulated in that province by just customs having the force of law.

There is no mining of any consequence in Ireland, and very little manufacturing. Belfast spins a great deal of flax and makes large quantities of linen, but that once-flourishing industry was crushed to death in other parts of Ireland by the British government in the interest of Protestant manufacturers. At one time southern Ireland displayed remarkable aptitude for this branch of skilled labor, and if events had been allowed to take their normal course, Irish linen would have made that island rich and contented. The policy of the British government was protective to one section and prohibitory to another. Once England imported its linen from that part of the island. Heavy export duties ruined the business where the people were Catholics, while Protestant Belfast was exempt from this restriction. This unjust discrimination extended from 1699 to 1828, when its object had been completely effected. Irish linen thus affords a striking instance of both sectional and sectarian iniquity.

From the eighth to the eleventh century was the period of Ireland's greatest comparative civilization. During that period it was more advanced in learning and culture than England, and certainly not inferior to any part of the continent except Moorish Spain. Colleges flourished and the arts were carried to a high degree of perfection. In education and religion it was independent, progressive and potential. The church of Rome became jealous of the Irish church and instigated Henry II. of England to make a war of subjugation upon the smaller but more advanced island. The Irish were not united under a strong central government. On the contrary, they were divided into petty kingdoms having no secure bond of union. This fact facilitated conquest. Henry made his raids in 1172. From that time to the present England has claimed Irish allegiance. Sometimes the yoke would be thrown off briefly, but only to be made all the more galling. The most memorable struggle between oppressor and oppressed was the Battle of the Boyne, fought July 1, 1690. The Catholics of Ireland had espoused the cause of James II. after his expulsion and the coronation of William and Mary, and that battle was the result. The anniversary of the victory achieved by the Orangemen on that occasion is still observed in some sections as a day of rejoicing and occasion of sectarian riot. Numerous have been the attempts of the

Irish, even in later times, to achieve independence, the abortive Fenian uprising being the last armed rebellion against British authority. The more important details and general facts in this regard have been given in previous chapters.

CUSTOM HOUSE, DUBLIN.

The greatest of Irish patriots was Daniel O'Connell. He was a phenomenal orator, the supreme agitator. "No revolution is worth one drop of blood" was his motto. Convinced of the futility of armed resistance, he sought to secure by parliamentary process the mitigation of Irish grievances. His efforts were not without much success. Many infamous laws were repealed in consequence of his agitation. The latest and most formidable rebellion occurred in 1798, and raged for two years. When suppressed the Irish Parliament at Dublin was abolished, and now Ireland is represented in the British Parliament.

BANK OF IRELAND AND TRINITY COLLEGE.

By far the greater part of the population of Ireland is Catholic; but until 1869 the Episcopal church was the state church. In that year, after a long contest in parliament, it was disestablished and disendowed, and the endowment, except as used for annuities, was dedicated to educational and other secular purposes.

That reform was not satisfactory, however, whereupon a powerful movement was inaugurated for securing reform in the tenure of land and the relations of landlord and tenant. The leader in this movement is Mr. Parnell, a large land owner and Protestant who has shown himself to be a great organizer, parliamentarian and debater. Reform within the constitution is his aim and scope. The present ministry and parliament have been almost absorbingly occupied with this subject, and the reformers have reason to take heart, there being some chance that the Irish may yet be placed on a political and industrial equality with the English and Scotch, although much remains to be done.

The statistics of Irish population are very remarkable. In 1750 the population was a trifle over 2,000,000, and in sixty years it lacked only a trifle of three

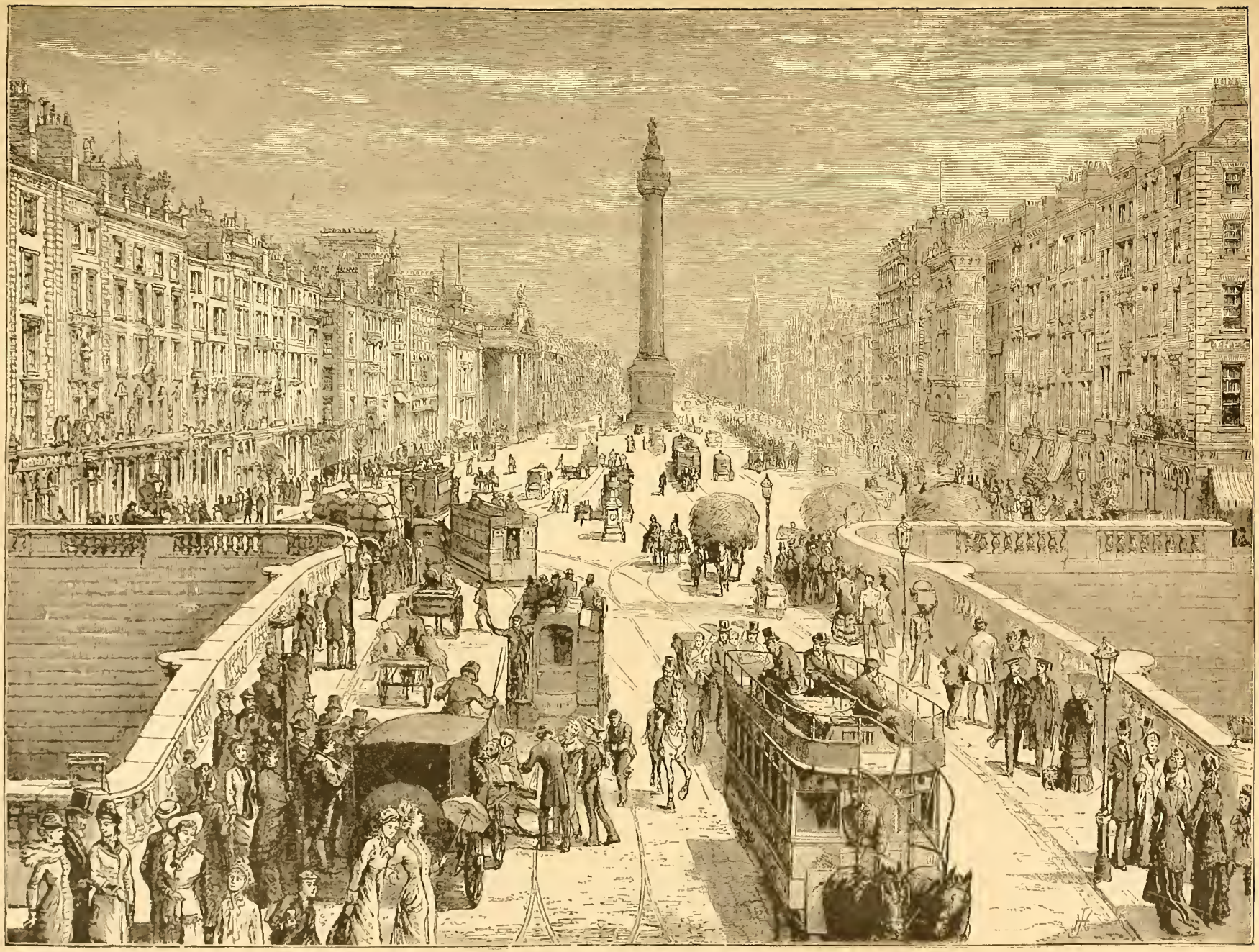
times that number; by 1841 it was over 8,000,000. Before another census, came the terrible famine, when thousands died of starvation, and vastly more sought relief in emigration to this country, some to England. It is estimated that over 2,000,000 came to America between the years 1851 and 1873, and that there are more Irish, including their children, in the United States than in Ireland. There are certainly more in New York City than in Dublin. The English and the landlords do not regret this loss of population, for they prefer cattle and sheep to men and women; butter and beef, wool and mutton, to potatoes. In this country the industrious citizen, irrespective of nationality, is a public benefactor, whatever his employment. That the Irish immigrant is welcome here and the Irish emigrant bidden godspeed there, is a difference largely due to different economical conditions and circumstances of nature.

LONDONDERRY.

The London *Times* thus briefly sums up the Irish land bill, which became a law in August, 1881, after one of the most memorable of parliamentary struggles, extending over seven months:

"It gives the tenant farmers all, and more than all that reasonable men among them expected, or even demanded, down to the year before its passage. It secures to all tenants throughout the sister island the right of free sale for which Ulster was wont to be envied. It gives them the privilege of getting the 'fair rent' of their holdings fixed by the court, and of obtaining what is in fact a statutory, or lease for fifteen years, renewable at the end of the term. It extends the authority of the tribunal created to administer the new law over contracts of the most solemn and stringent character, so that leaseholders may not be excluded from the benefits of the bill. It greatly enlarges the opportunities for the creation of peasant proprietory with the aid of public funds."

The chief cities of Ireland are Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Limerick, Londonderry and Queenstown. The river Liffey, flowing through Dublin, divides it into two nearly equal parts. The population is about 250,000. The former capitol of Ireland, situated there, is now used as a bank building. Belfast, 100 miles north of Dublin, is the chief city of the Protestant portion of the island. It has nearly 200,000 inhabitants, very few of them being Romanists. Linen manufactories were established there as early



SACKVILLE STREET, DUBLIN.

as 1637. It is still the center of Irish textual manufactures. Cork is almost wholly Catholic, and its manufactures are glass and other minor staples. It is situated 136 miles southwest of Dublin and has an excellent harbor. Limerick has the honor of being the last place to surrender to William III., in 1694, on which occasion it secured important concessions for the Catholics within its limits. It is the chief city of Munster. Londonderry, like Belfast, is in the north of Ireland, and an important center of Protestant influence. It was once a fortified town. Very many of the people are of Scotch descent.

Trinity College, Dublin, is the principal university of Ireland. It was founded in 1320, but it fell into decay, until revived by Queen Elizabeth in 1593. Her successor, James I., granted it representation in parliament, and munificent endowments. It is a very rich institution and its rank is with the best universities of Europe. Among its graduates are numbered Swift, Goldsmith, Burke, Berkeley and Sheridan. Queen's colleges, Cork, Galway and Belfast, are somewhat important centers of liberal and professional education; but not as well known as Maynooth College. The latter is designed for the education of priests. It has provision for about five hundred students. It was founded in 1795. It has a state endowment and is the only state endowment of any kind in Ireland for the benefit of Roman Catholics.

In Irish affection no name has a more tender place than Robert Emmet, born in 1780. He was a leader of the United Irishmen, a great organization, having for its object the liberation of their native country from British rule. In 1803 he and his associates were engaged in an uprising which was premature, to say the least of it. Young Emmet was arrested, tried, convicted and executed. His speech in his own defense on the trial is a very remarkable piece of eloquence. His sad fate inspired the muse of Thomas Moore, whose "Irish melodies" give voice to Irish patriotism.

The latest formidable and avowed organization in favor of Irish nationality is, or was (for the society seems to be a thing of the past), the Fenian Brotherhood. In medieval and legendary Ireland there was a tribe by the name of Finns or Finians. The modern society of the name was started in 1859, in both America and Great Britain. It held a "Congress" at Chicago in 1863. That first gathering attracted much attention. Another, held at Cincinnati two years later, was more important. It represented a constituency of 80,000, and seriously threatened trouble. The next year two military companies of Fenians crossed from the United States to Canada. to strike at England through the New Dominion, The raid was abortive and inglorious. Several Fenian riots occurred in Great Britain during 1867, but they accomplished nothing directly, but indirectly they wrought a great work for Ireland, impressing upon parliament the necessity of Irish reform. In that point of view the Fenian Brotherhood deserves much credit.

The Land League is a radically different organization. It aims at British reforms within the limitations of the British constitution, rather than the dissolution of the union. It has secured very much through the land bill and the readjustment of rents thereunder, and it is still a tremendous power in Ireland and the British parliament.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

CHAPTER LXV.

EXTENT OF CANADA—CENSUS RETURNS OF 1881—ENGLISH DISCOVERY OF CANADA—FRENCH SETTLEMENT OF CANADA—ACADIA AND THE ACADIANS—OLD FRANCE IN "NEW FRANCE"—CHAMPLAIN AND HIS POLICY—BRITISH POLICY IN CANADA—THE PERPETUATION OF NATIONAL TYPES AND OLD WORLD PREJUDICES—THE CANADIAN INDIANS—MANITOBA—HUDSON BAY AND THE HUDSON BAY COMPANY—POLITICAL SYSTEM OF CANADA—VIRTUAL INDEPENDENCE—RECIPROCITY—THE CITIES OF CANADA—EDUCATION—RAILROADS—LABRADOR AND THE ESQUIMAUX.

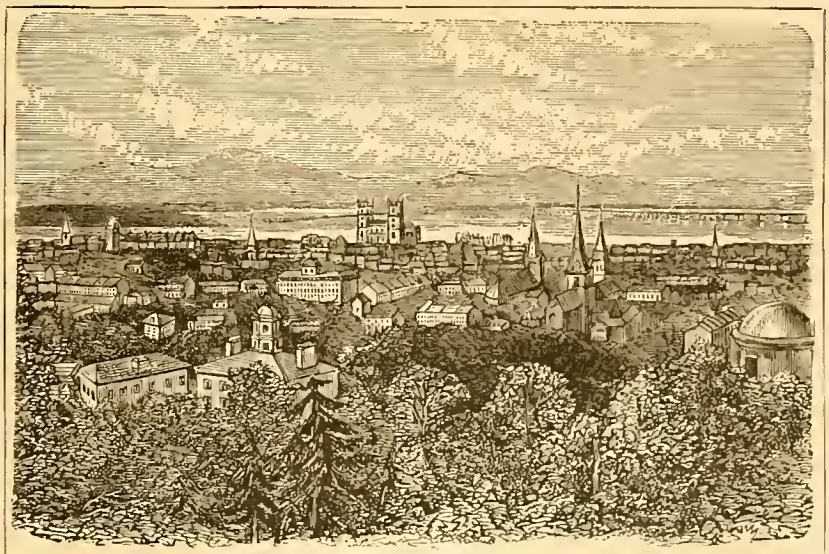
UNTIL the year 1877 the term Canada applied simply to a tract of country some 1,400 miles long and from 200 to 400 miles wide, just north of the United States, divided into Upper and Lower Canada, and forming the better, but by no means the larger, part of British America, and now known as the provinces of Ontario and Quebec. But the term now has a much wider import. What were so long the distinct provinces of the Atlantic coast, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island and Newfoundland, are now included, also British Columbia, Manitoba, Labrador, the Hudson Bay region, in fine, "the whole boundless continent" north of the United States, except Alaska, reaching to the North Pole and from ocean to ocean, formerly known as British America. The complete consolidation of the Dominion was not effected until 1873, Prince Edward's Island being the last province to join the confederation. The total area of the Dominion is about 3,500,000 square miles.

The Canadian census of 1881 may be summed up in its more important features thus: 680,498 are the figures for the total increase during the last decade immediately preceding the enumeration, and the total population is now 4,350,533. The inhabitants of Ontario now number 1,913,460; of Quebec, 1,358,469; of Nova Scotia, 440,585; of New Brunswick, 321,129. The population of Prince Edward's Island is 107,781, and of Manitoba 49,509. British Columbia and the territories are estimated at 160,000. As compared with the census of 1871 Ontario shows the largest increase, the percentage being 18.05, Quebec, 14.02, Nova Scotia, 13.61, New Brunswick, 12.44 and Prince Edward's Island, 14.63.

It was in the spring of 1497 that John Cabot, a foreign merchant of Bristol, England, set sail with a fleet of five vessels on a voyage of discovery in the new world. Henry VII. commissioned him. His son, Sebastian Cabot, commanded one of the vessels. They reached the Newfoundland coast in June, and were the first Englishmen to behold America. They returned to England almost immediately. No settlement was effected. Two years later the younger Cabot conducted a second expedition across the Atlantic, but this time came to anchor in the Gulf of Mexico instead of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

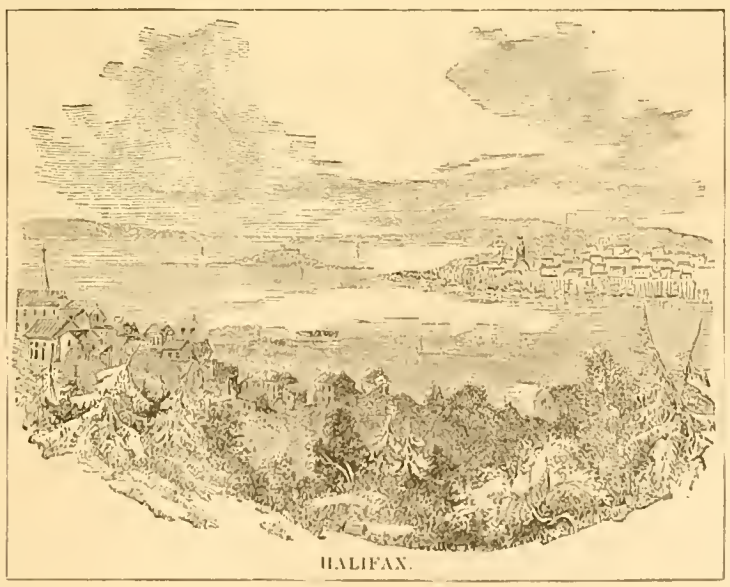
The Cabots accomplished nothing, beyond the dissemination of New-World knowledge.

The first practical discovery of Canada occurred in 1534. Jacques Cartier, a French navigator, reached the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and ascended that lordly river as far as the site of Montreal. It was two years before Cartier returned to France. Prior to that time the New Foundland fisheries had tempted the French, English, Spanish and Portuguese across the Atlantic, but Cartier was the first permanent settler. He brought to these shores a very considerable colony from the west of France, men in whose veins there coursed the blood of the old Norman rovers and robbers. A little prior to Cartier's explorations a French fleet had sailed along the American continent from Florida to Canada, dubbing it "New France," but doing nothing to really justify the appellation. The first French settlers had for their main object trade in furs and fish. Gradually they formed permanent settlements, near the coast and along the St. Lawrence.



VIEW OF MONTREAL FROM MOUNT ROYAL.

One of the primitive settlements of "New France" was Acadia, or Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and a part of Maine. The first Acadian settlement was in 1604. Its close proximity to the fishery banks rendered it especially important. In 1713 France ceded Acadia to England. The people resolutely refused to take the oath of allegiance to the English crown. There were eighteen thousand of them, and the ruthless hand of British power removed them, in many cases separating families. The melancholy fate of the Acadians furnished and suggested Longfellow's great and substantially historical poem of "Evangeline."



HALIFAX.

The French of Canada belong to the old regime, the France which preceded the Revolution. They are and always have been singularly out of all sympathy with their fatherland of the last century, and pride themselves upon their conservatism. They are profoundly religious and as orthodox as a college of cardinals. They have no share in the work wrought for the French people by Diderot and Voltaire, Rousseau and Danton, the Cyclopedia and the *sans culotte*. They have remained

as nearly stationary as possible, and show no signs of uneasiness in a sitting posture. As contradictory as it may sound, it is none the less true, that old France is to be found only in "New France," among a people who left their ancestral homes before the Renaissance.

Second to Cartier was Champlain, in whose honor Lake Champlain was named. He came to this country in 1603. His aim was more to found a state than to establish a trading-post. In 1608 he laid the foundations of Quebec. The policy of Champlain was to found an empire by converting, civilizing and subduing the Indians, rather than by building up a purely French colony. The colonists were to be lay missionaries, instrumental in elevating the aborigines of the New World, much as the barbarians of Northern Europe had been transformed by intercourse with civilized peoples. But he did not know the unchangeable savagery of the Indian. Many were Christianized, and for the most part friendly relations have always been maintained between the races; but the distinctive idea of Samuel Champlain, as of John Eliot, proved a flat failure.

From the days of Champlain dates the real prosperity of Canada. The white population increased with considerable rapidity. By the year 1759, when the whole country passed into English control and the French flag was furled, the French population numbered about 65,000 souls. There has been no increase since by immigration, and a great many of the French Canadians have emigrated and are emigrating to the United States, the "States," as they call it.

The sad fate of Acadia was not shared by the Canadians of half a century later. On the contrary, the French took the oath of allegiance in good faith and the English adopted a very conciliatory policy. They respected the rights and indulged the preferences of the conquered people to an unprecedented degree. They were allowed to retain their peculiarities of language, religion, and to a large extent, laws. To this day Canada is governed upon a dual plan which fosters the maintenance of the French population as a distinct part of the people. The present French population of Canada is something over one million, and the toleration of the British crown, together with the radical changes in France, have developed in those people a loyalty to the imperial government second only to that of the Russian peasantry.

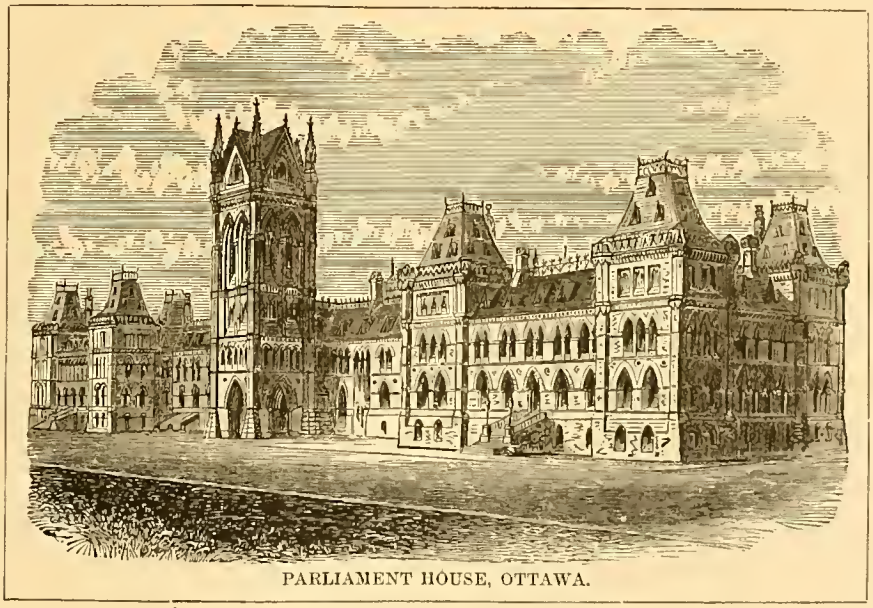
The great bulk of the present population of Canada is divided between the French, Irish, Scotch and English, with a few Germans in the larger towns. Along the United States border are scattered some descendants of the Tories of the Revolutionary War. It may be remarked that the different elements of the population, whatever their nationality, maintain their national peculiarities more tenaciously there than anywhere else. For example, the Battle of the Boyne is fought over with disreputable frequency between the Catholic Irish and the Orangemen upon Canadian soil. Nor is it an uncommon thing to find settlements of Scotch Highlanders where Gaelic only is spoken and the English language is an unknown tongue.

There are about 100,000 Indians in Canada, not including the Esquimaux of the far north. Many of these aborigines are on reservations, and all of them are peaceable. No complaints of Indian wars and "rings" are made. The larger part of these savages are to be found in British Columbia and the far north, where there is ample game. Those upon reservations are making some progress in the arts of civilization.

The older part of Canada is adapted to and devoted to miscellaneous farming, but Manitoba, the Red River region of the north and center, is peculiarly suited to wheat growing. It resembles Minnesota which it joins. That far-reaching tract of country in the very heart of the continent, under proper cultivation and with transportation facilities, might furnish bread to the whole world, if necessary. The great difficulty of course is transportation. A railroad across the continent on Canadian soil has been projected, and strong hopes of its construction are entertained. A railroad to Hudson's Bay has been contemplated—one could hardly say projected. The province of Manitoba was purchased by Thomas Douglas, Earl of Selkirk, from the Hudson Bay Company in 1810. The "Red River Settlement," or Pembina, was effected under his lordship's auspices, a colony of Highlanders establishing themselves there. It was not at all flourishing. At last the Northern Pacific railroad came near enough to furnish an outlet for the wheat crop and an era of some prosperity was inaugurated.

Hudson's Bay has been well described as "a great

landlocked sea." It is 800 miles in length from north to south and 600 miles in width, covering an area of 300,000 square miles. Hudson's Strait is its outlet to the Atlantic. It is icebound in winter and rendered somewhat dangerous by floating ice in summer. The idea of reaching the seaboard from Manitoba by that route is wholly chimerical. The Hudson's Bay Company was the last of the great British commercial monopolies. It was chartered in 1670 by Charles II., and it did not surrender its powers and rights to the crown until quite recently. The act of parliament authorizing the surrender and providing therefor, was passed in 1868. The transfer was perfected in 1870, just two centuries after its corporate creation. It traded mainly in furs. Gradually it spread its area of traffic and established trading-posts from ocean to ocean. Its profits were enormous. So too were its benefits to the world, for it set in operation a stupendous mechanism by which the savages of the northern portion of North America were induced to harvest the fur crop of that part of the continent for the comfort and health of the civilized world.



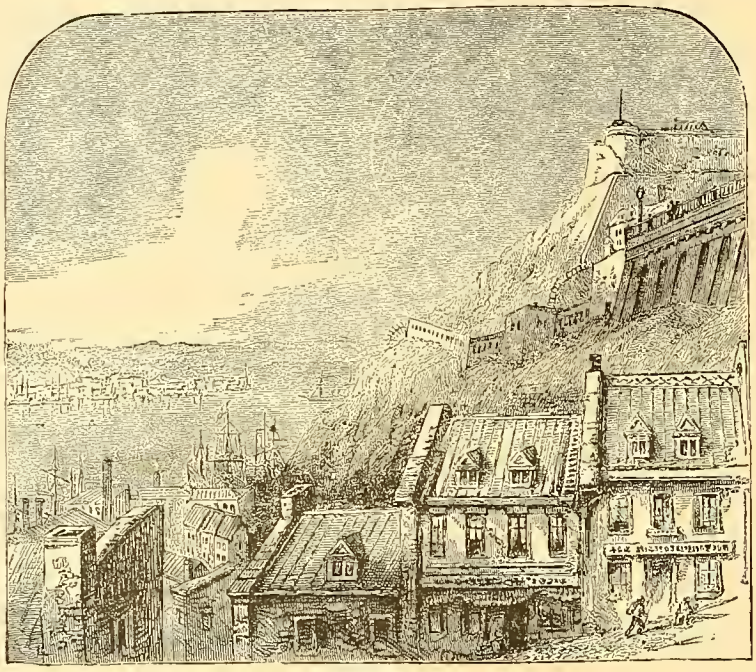
PARLIAMENT HOUSE, OTTAWA.

The political system of Canada is somewhat complicated. The fetters of colonial dependence are simply bracelets, worn for ornament. The home government appoints a governor-general whose principal duties consist in the maintenance of a miniature court at the capital, Ottawa, for the diversion of the good people thereabouts. The actual authority of government is divided between the Dominion parliament and the parliaments of the provinces. That imposing figurehead, the Governor-General, has the pardoning power, and that is about all. At the present time the position is filled by the Marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the Duke of Argyle and son-in-law of Queen Victoria. He is a worthy gentleman and gives satisfaction, although, perhaps, not quite as popular as his immediate predecessor, Lord Dufferin. The constitution of the dominion, adopted in 1867, defines the relative functions of the general and the local governments. The former has jurisdiction of criminal law, including the penitentiaries; bankruptcy proceedings; marriage and divorce; naturalization of aliens; Indians and their reservations, and, in fine, all matters not expressly assigned to the provincial legislatures, reversing, on this latter point, the policy of the constitution of the United States. Provincial legislatures are restricted to strictly local matters. The judges in Canada hold office during good behavior, and the courts consist of the local tribunals and a Supreme Court and Court of Exchequer at Ottawa.

There is no longer any considerable desire on the part of Canada to be free from England, nor yet to be annexed to the United States. The present system of government seems to meet the popular views admirably. The existence of vexatious tariff restrictions upon commerce across the border is a mutual source of regret, but so long as the interest of this republic requires protective or revenue duties, these restrictions would appear to be inevitable. At least there is no indication that a reciprocity treaty will be entered upon between the United States and Canada.

Quebec is a quaint old town with walls and battle-

ments, and streets which are mere lanes and alleys. Few cities of Europe are as suggestive of the medieval age as Quebec. Montreal is a thrifty port, admirably situated at the confluence of the river and gulf of St. Lawrence. It is the natural head of that chain of lake navigation which extends from the upper waters of the Superior and links together Duluth, Milwaukee, Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, Toledo, Buffalo, Oswego, Ogdensburg and Montreal. It was formerly the capital of Canada. A formidable riot dispersed parliament in 1849 and burnt down the capitol. It was not rebuilt. The capital was removed to Toronto during the next two years, and then to Quebec for four years. Toronto is on the shore of Lake Ontario and is the provincial capital of the province of Toronto. When Upper or Western Canada was distinct from Lower or Eastern Canada, Toronto was the capital. It has many fine buildings, the most notable being the University of Toronto. It was in 1857 that the seat of government was removed to the interior town of Ottawa, which has remained the capital ever since. St. John's in New Brunswick and St. John's in Newfoundland are both very considerable ports. So is Halifax, Nova Scotia. Hamilton and London are flourishing towns in Ontario.



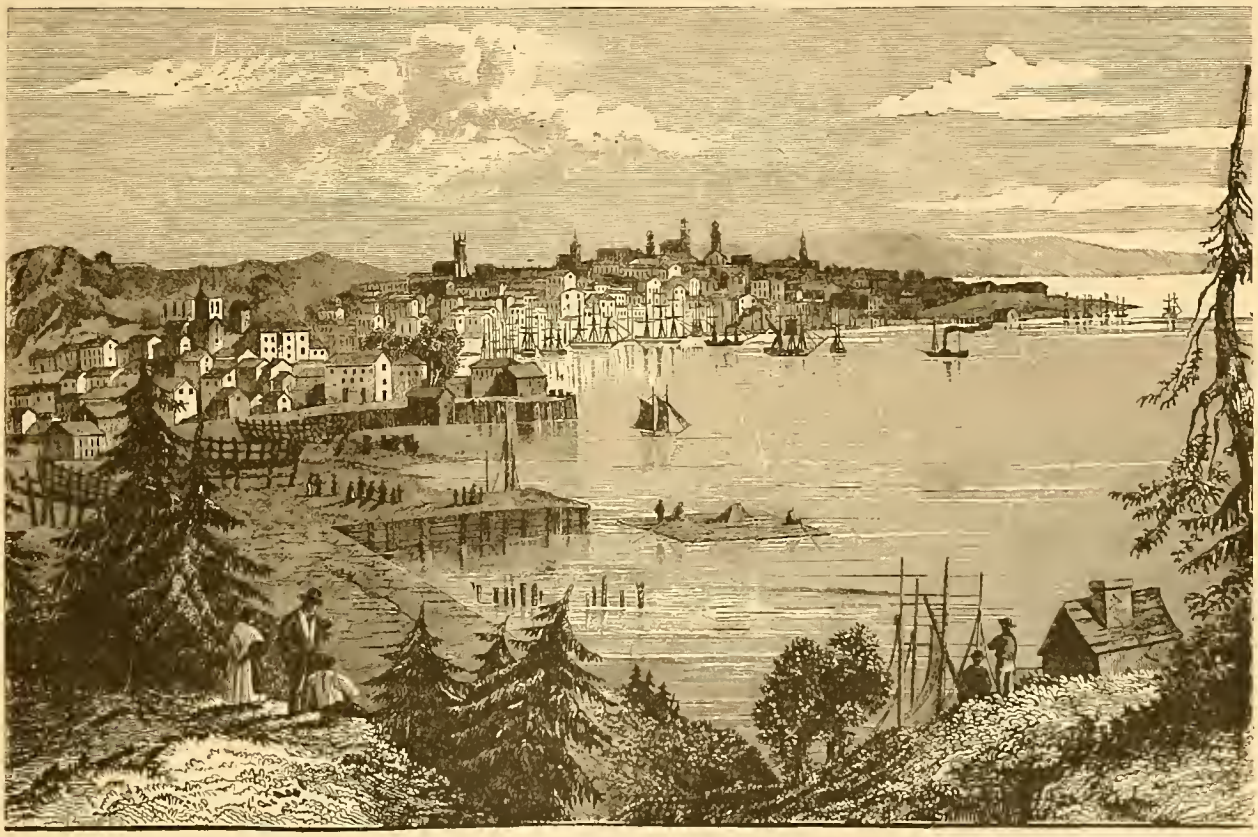
QUEBEC.

In the matter of education, a public school system prevails wherever the population is dense enough to admit of it, with the exception of the Province of Quebec. The French Canadians are not to be lured to destruction by spelling-books. The priests hold firmly to the children, and carefully train them up in ignorance and the Catechism.

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

Speaking of the railroads of the country, Frederick Martin says, "The Dominion of Canada had a network of railways of a total length of 5,574

miles at the end of June, 1878. There were at the same period lines of a total length of 1,996 miles in course of construction, and 3,000 miles more had been surveyed, and concessions granted by the government. Partly included in the latter class is a railway crossing the whole of the dominion, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, to the construction of which the British government contributes a grant, in the form of a guaranteed loan of $2,500,000." Since the term Canada, in its fullest sense, extends to the North Pole, this chapter may close with some account of Labrador and the Esquimaux.



ST. JOHN'S, N. B.

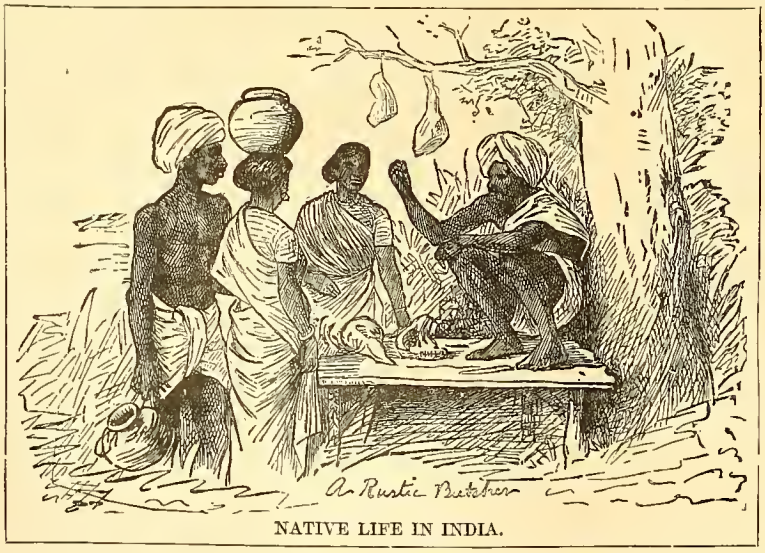
Labrador means "arable land." It is as great a misnomer as the name Greenland. A distinct county by that name in the valley of the Saguenay, and province of Quebec, is inhabited by a few French Canadians who thrive by fishing. Labrador proper applies to an area of about 500,000 square miles north of Hudson Bay, the home of the Esquimaux. This branch of the family of American aborigines, found at the extreme north on both the Atlantic and the Pacific coast, are thought to be the connecting link between the Indian and the Mongolians mentioned in a succeeding chapter on the Chinese Empire. They are short, thick, muscular and stupid, expert only in fishing or hunting. They are supposed to number about 50,000, including those found in Greenland and Alaska. Their domestic animal is the dog, and their principal food is the blubber of the whale, walrus or seal. Their color is a light brown. Originally they were almost wholly destitute of religious sensibilities. Christian missionaries, Moravian and Danish Lutheran, have done something in the line of their conversion to Christianity.

BRITISH INDIA.

CHAPTER LXVI.

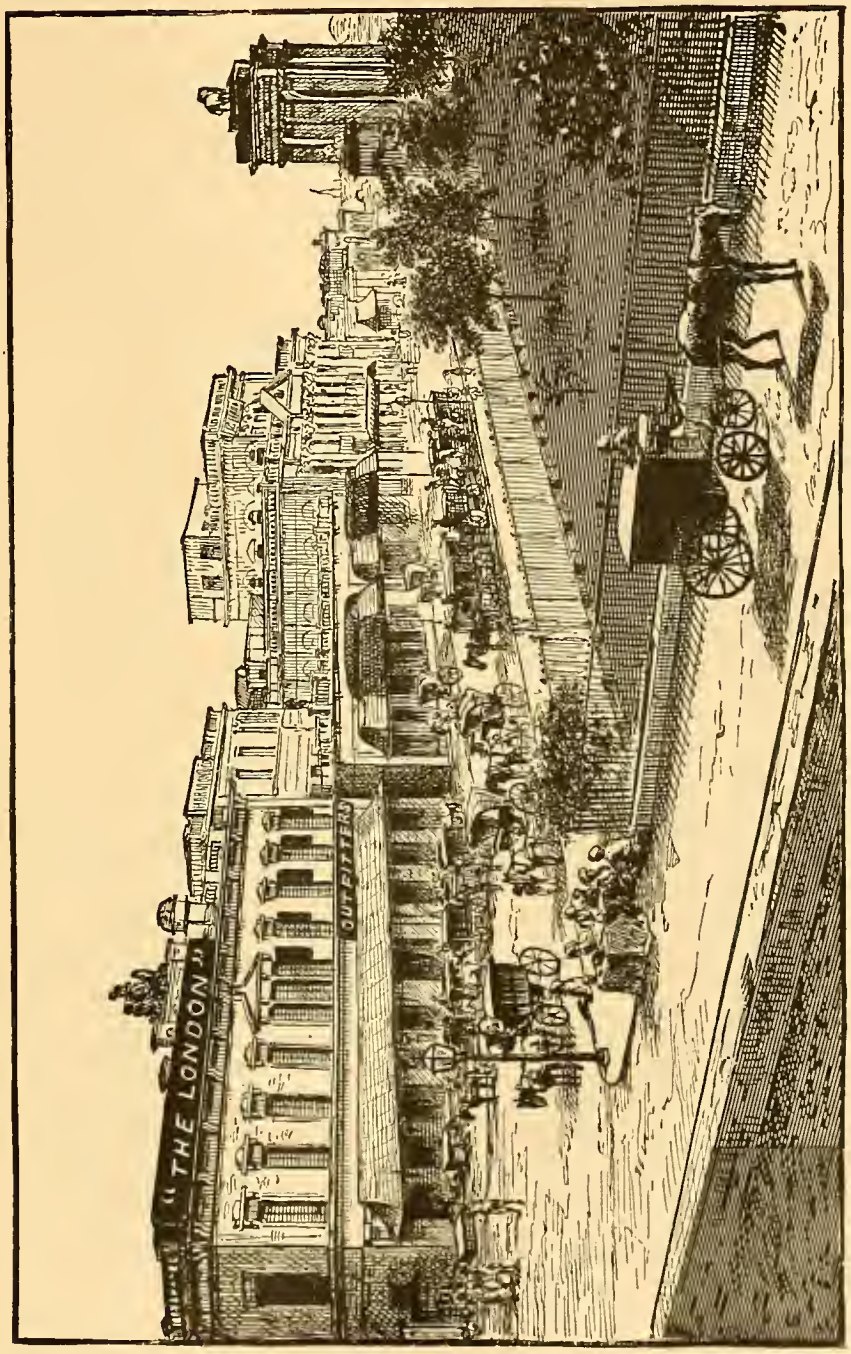
IMPERIAL INDIA—THE BIRTH-PLACE OF THE ARYAN RACE—ANCIENT RUINS—ALEXANDER IN INDIA—PORTUGUESE AND DUTCH INDIA—BRITISH EXPULSION OF THE NETHERLANDERS—THE FRENCH IN INDIA—LORD CLIVE AND SURAJAH DOWLAH—WARREN HASTINGS—LORD CORNWALLIS—SEPOY MUTINY AND ITS RESULTS—VICEROYS OF THE CROWN—"OWEN MEREDITH" AND LORD RIPON—THE MOGUL EMPIRE—BENARES THE HOLY CITY—SANSKRIT AND THE POSSIBILITIES OF THE FUTURE.

DURING the premiership of the late Lord Beaconsfield the Queen of England added to her titles that of Empress of India. That country, sometimes called Hindustan, is indeed an empire, containing as it does no less than 250,000,000 people, not savages either, but the inheritors of a splendid civilization, effete, it is true, but not wholly lost and wasted. In population this imperial possession is double that of the Roman empire at its best. With the Himalaya mountains on the north, and the Indian Ocean on the south, it is a land by itself, rich in resources and under a high state of cultivation in many parts. Such a country contributes greatly to the wealth of England, both by its imports and its exports, furnishing the raw material and consuming the manufactured article, all to an extent which may fairly entitle India to the designation of the backbone of British prosperity.



NATIVE LIFE IN INDIA.

By a careful comparative study of languages it has been ascertained that the present great nations of the world came, for the most part, from the Aryan race, which can be traced to India. The Brahmin, the Greek, the Roman, the Englishman, the German, the Yankee, all belong



OLD COURT HOUSE STREET, DALHOUSIE SQUARE, CALCUTTA.

to the same stock. But the connection is too remote and obscure to be traced in this volume. It is enough for our purpose to follow the footprints of historical development.

India is splendid, yet mournful in ruins. Fallen temples and decaying pagodas attest a past which is sealed from the vision of history. Eventually their mysteries may be explored and the gold of facts separated from the dross of fiction. Now those monumental ruins are surrounded by the wall of mystery.

The first appearance of India in history dates from B. C. 327, when Alexander the Great attempted its conquest. His intrepid army was flushed with victory over the Persians, and eager for "more worlds to conquer." India was little more to the Greeks than a vague rumor, a fabulous land of wealth and luxury, a veritable Eldorado. But the march itself was exhaustive. The Ganges was his goal, and no serious human obstacle impeded his course; but the heat of the country melted the heroism of the brave Greeks, and the sand choked their enterprise.

ENGLISH LIFE IN INDIA.

The intrepid and dauntless Alexander spent two years in the country including the time spent in the march thither and back, returning without a permanent foothold. The invasion was not wholly fruitless, however. Greek culture acquired some advantage from contact with what may probably be set down as the oldest of all extant or known civilizations. But no vital connection was formed between the two, and India soon dropped out of the great world with which ancient history has to do, leaving behind hardly a single landmark or trace of any kind.

The first European, after Alexander, to penetrate to India and establish relations with it was the enterprising Vasco da Gama, whose exploits were told in connection with Portugal. For a century the Portuguese enjoyed a monopoly of oriental commerce, and then came the Dutch to wrest it from them in great measure. During the seventeenth century Antwerp, Amsterdam and other commercial cities grew rich in the Indian traffic. The Dutch East India Company

was formed in 1602. The English were not slow in trying to gain a footing, and the Dutch, who had succeeded in eclipsing the Portuguese, found a formidable rival in the British. That rivalry was sharp and bloody until 1689, when the accession of William of Orange to the English throne brought comparative peace.

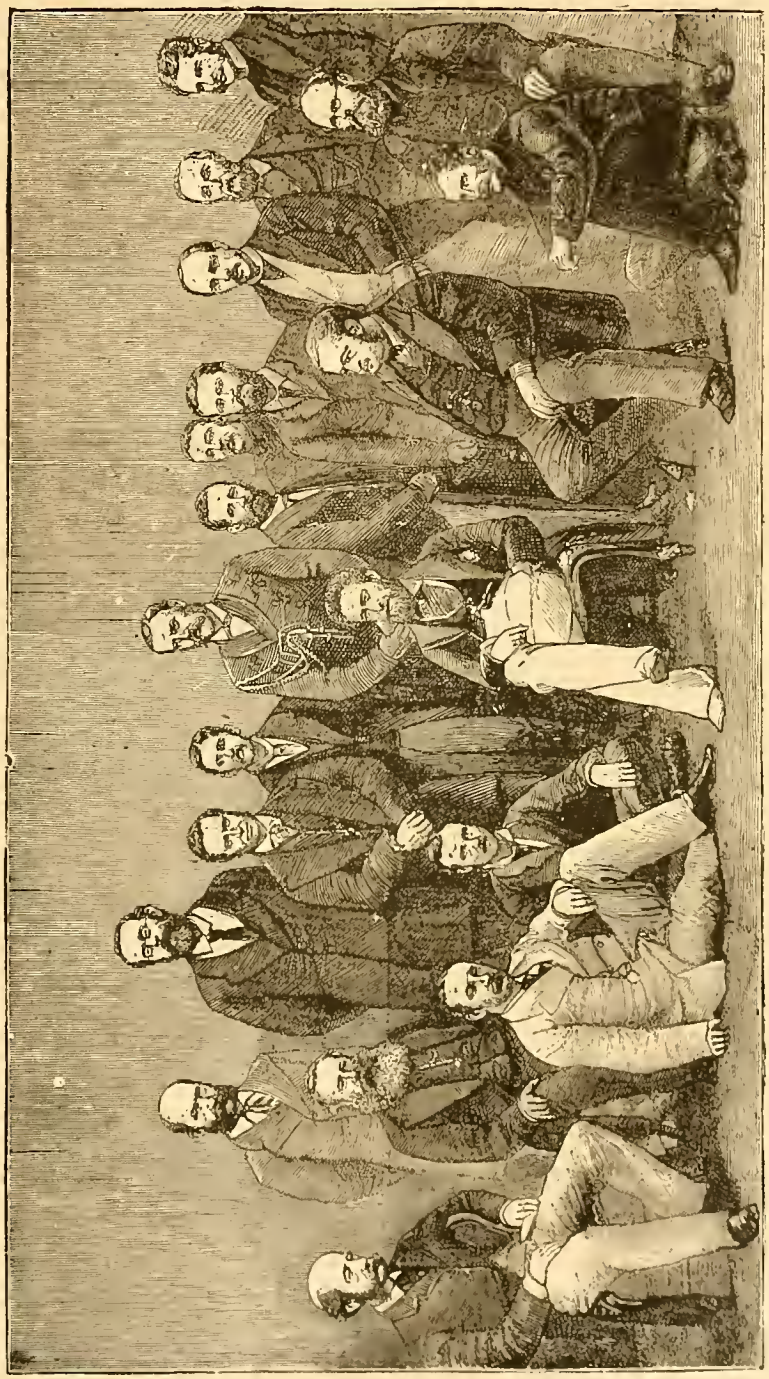
Before that time the union jack of England had successfully defied the Dutch broom in Indian waters, and Lord Clive had laid firmly and broadly the foundations of British India. The decisive blow was struck in 1758. But it was during the period when Europe was the theater of almost constant warfare, from 1781 to 1811, that England succeeded in expelling the Dutch from India. Even Java, afterwards restored, was wrested from the Hollanders. By the last census returns the Dutch population in India proper had dwindled to seventy-two. Many houses and some canals remain to testify that the Netherlanders once possessed the land, or the sea rather, but they themselves have gone. When Admiral Duncan, of the British navy, almost annihilated the Dutch fleet off Camperdown, on the eleventh of October, 1797, that was the virtual end of Dutch East India.

The East India Company, chartered by the English parliament in 1600, may be said to have begun England's connection with Indian affairs. It took about a century to dispossess the national rivals already mentioned. A third rival was France. To the French belongs the dubious honor of originating the policy of employing native soldiers under foreign officers, to conquer the country. They were called Sepahs, or Sepoys. England soon adopted the same policy. About the middle of the eighteenth century the Indian rivalry of the two nations was very sharp. For a time it seemed that the English were to have meted out to them the same judgment that had been awarded to the Portuguese and Dutch. The honor of arresting the progress of the French and finally insuring British supremacy, belongs to Robert Clive, afterwards Lord Clive. He entered the service of the Company as a clerk. He never enjoyed the advantages of a military or liberal education. His first exploit was the recapture from the French of the city of Arcot, having at command only 500 men. He held the city against a besieging army of 10,000 natives. Dupleix, the French governor, was held in check and defeated in several engagements. A decisive battle was fought June 23, 1757, on the field of Plassey. Clive had 1,000 English and 2,000 Sepoy troops, and with that handful he defeated the native Viceroy of Bengal, who was the ally of the French, Surajah Dowlah, at the head of 65,000 men. That great victory shattered the French rule and broke the power of the Viceroy. The French rapidly dwindled away, but did not abandon all hope of regaining lost ground until in 1801 their expulsion was completed. The final outcome of the Napoleonic campaign made assurance doubly sure. In the battle of Waterloo the last remnant of Indian hope for France disappeared forever.

SURAJAH DOWLAH.

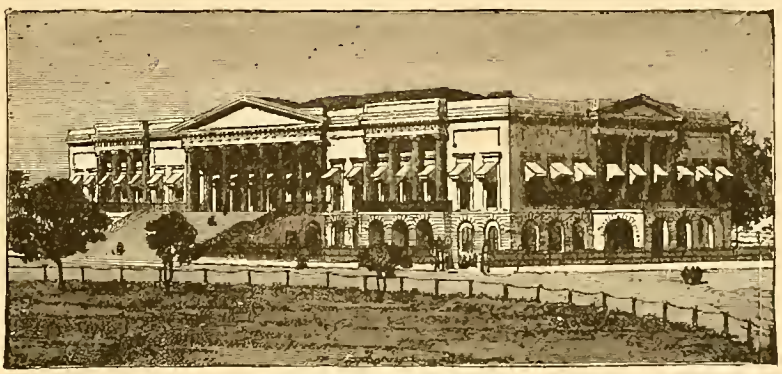
Lord Clive was something more than a brave soldier. He was the first Governor-General of the country. His administration of affairs was only for the period of two years, but during that time he succeeded in crushing out all European rivalry and in making highly important inroads upon native rule. The Viceroy Surajah Dowlah was a powerful prince, but he was destroyed. He it was who in 1757 took Calcutta from the English and crowded 150 of the prisoners taken into the dungeon rendered famous as the "Black Hole of Calcutta." All except twenty of the number died the first night of suffocation. But his cruelty was trivial and mild as compared to the relentless despotism of Clive, whose policy was to terrorize the Hindoos into subjection.

In 1773 the British East India Company underwent some changes, and the notorious Warren Hastings was appointed Governor-General. He pursued the policy of Lord Clive. To cruelty was added rapacity of the most ravenous sort. The corporation which they served was a commercial organization and judged everything from the standpoint of revenue only. Vast fortunes were accumulated by private individuals in their employ, and expenditures



LORD LYTTON AND STAFF.

for pensions, bribes and subsidies were immense; but so long as the Company received the lion's share in net profits abuses were unchecked. But public sentiment was at last aroused. Warren Hastings was impeached by parliament. His trial was one of the most memorable in all history. It called out the eloquence of Burke and others. Hastings was acquitted by the peers before whom he was tried, but convicted by the court of public opinion, which also sat in judgment upon his case. The result was a reformation in Indian affairs. Under the lead of William Pitt, parliament in 1784 made a radical change in the political system of India. Hitherto the Company had been absolute and despotic, but henceforth a board of control was to have supervisory power. It was not until 1858 that the government took upon itself largely the management of the country, doing away with the Governors-General beholden to a corporation, and substituting for them Viceroys of the crown. There were twenty Governors-General during the ninety-three years of Company rule, Earl Canning being the last. Among these was Lord Cornwallis. After his inglorious career in America, upon Indian soil he achieved substantial victories which showed that his surrender at Yorktown was not the cowardice of a poltroon, but the wisdom of one who bowed to the inevitable. The Marquis of Wellesley, or Duke of Wellington, was another of the governors and soldiers who preserved and extended British rule in India.



TOWN HALL, BOMBAY.

The East India Company, which ranks as the most gigantic monopoly of all history, received its death-blow from the Sepoy Mutiny. The first outbreak occurred May 10, 1857. It spread like wildfire over the country, the central points being Cawnpore, Lucknow and Delhi. The Europeans in the former were slaughtered, men, women and children; in the latter they held out until relief came. Delhi was in the hands of the Sepoys from the first, and the fall of that city was fatal to the mutiny. Strong was the provocation of the mutineers, and not in vain was the blood shed in the struggle. From subjection to a soulless corporation to the rule of an empire which is based largely upon regard for the welfare of the people was a most beneficent revolution. During that war General Havelock became famous as the ideal Christian soldier. The utter inability of the natives to cope with the English was so fully shown, and the British policy so far reformed, that since the fall of Delhi there has been no insurrection, nor any serious manifestations of disaffection.

Under Beaconsfield the viceroyship was held by Lord Lytton, son of Bulwer E. Lytton, the novelist. His rule was devoid of special interest. It must be admitted that as "Owen Meredith," author of *Lucille*, he won far more honor than he did or could as Viceroy. Mr. Gladstone appointed as his successor Lord Ripon, one of the framers of the Treaty of Washington, which settled the "Alabama claims."

Without going into wearisome details, it may be added that the present British policy is to allow the native population to be governed in accordance with their own system of laws and methods of justice, so far as such liberty may be indulged without endangering English supremacy. In that way can the interests of the British public be best conserved and promoted.

Having traced the course of events in India from the standpoint of foreign intervention, showing the relations of that country to the rest of the world, it will be of interest to ascertain its history from an independent standpoint.

The great Hindoo epic, *Ramayana*, not inaptly called "The Iliad of the East," is supposed to be at least three thousand years old; but its statements

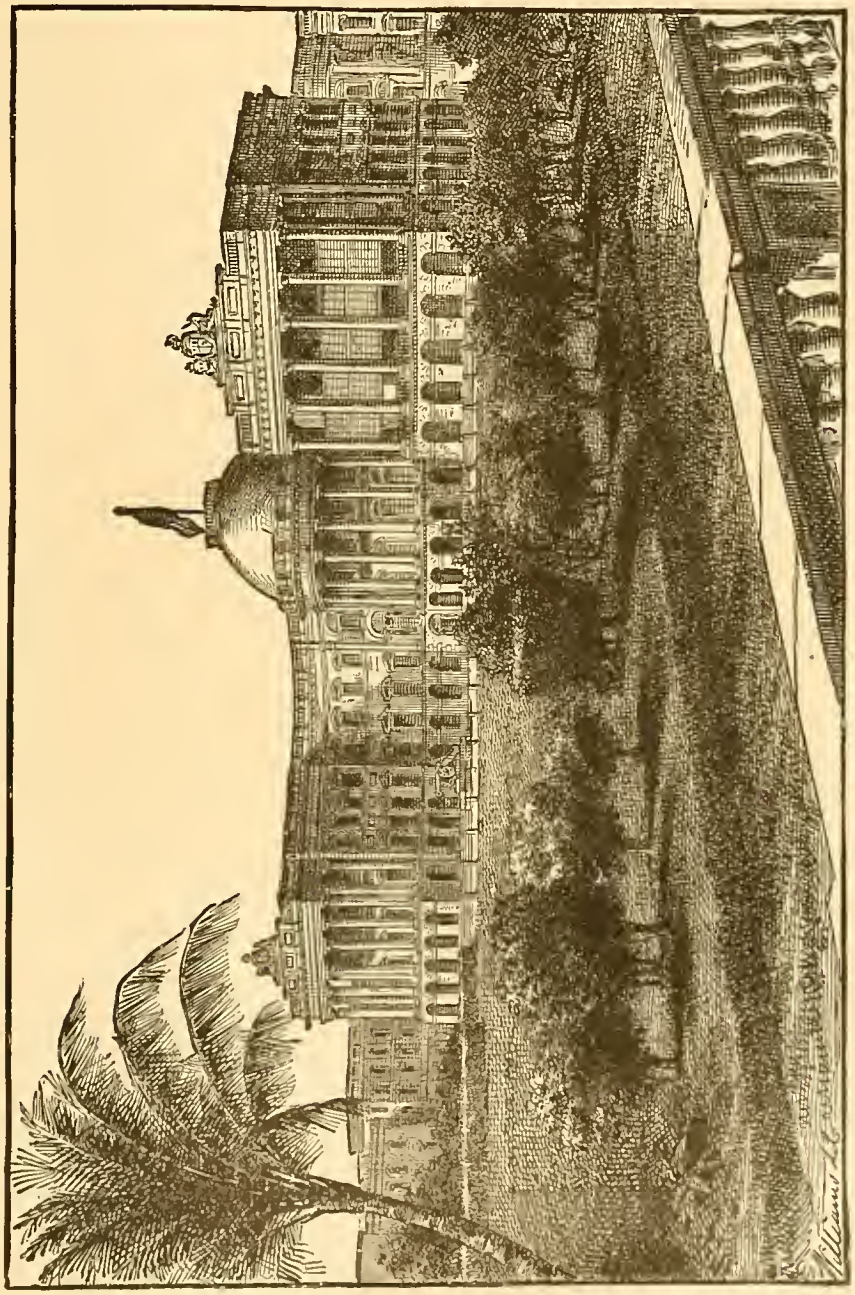
are self-evident fiction, for the most part. The first kingdom of India within the range of authentic history was the Mogul Empire. Mogul is a corruption or abbreviation of Mongol. The dynasty was founded by Baberin 1556, a descendant on his mother's side of that great Tartar, Tamerlane. These Mogul emperors, fifteen in number, were all Mohammedans. They were fierce warriors and terrible bigots. Their zeal for Islam was only equaled by their slakeless thirst for plunder. They ravaged India and gathered the rich spoils of the more civilized but less warlike "heathen round about." The empire was at its height in the last half of the seventeenth century. Delhi was the capital. The Europeans, whether Portuguese, Dutch, French or English, avoided conflict with the great Mogul. The great Sepoy rebellion was abetted by Bahadur, the emperor at Delhi. The empire had already been greatly weakened by schism and dissentions, and that Sepoy alliance was fatal. The English shot his sons and grandson, and transported the emperor himself to Burmah where he died. Thus with the close of the Sepoy rebellion the Mogul Empire disappeared, and has since shown no symptoms of life.

BUDDHA.

In 1878 the total railway mileage in India was 8,215. There had been expended in the construction and equipment of these railroads over $500,000,000. The population of British India, classified according to religion, is Brahmans, 140,000,000; Mohammedans, 40,000,000; Buddhists, 3,000,000; Christians, 900,000; various forms of aboriginal belief, 6,000,000. In Southern India the missionaries have met with some success. Buddhism is a reformed or later Brahminism, Buddha sustaining much the same relation to Brahma as Jesus Christ does to Jehovah in our religion. The total following of Buddha at the present day in British India is confined to the Burmese possessions.

India has several splendid cities, centers of trade and wealth, the most notable of these being the seldom visited, because far inland, Benares. It is upon the banks of the Ganges. The Brahmans regard it with sacred veneration. It is the chief seat of Indian education. It contains some splendid mosques and temples. It has a population of about 250,000.

A glance at the Sanskrit language and literature, and we take leave of India. In the study of languages as a science, the Sanskrit is the most helpful. It ceased to be spoken so many centuries ago that its death is shrouded in impenetrable mystery. The sacred books of the Brahmins are preserved from vulgar knowledge by being entombed in a dead tongue. This religious literature is enormous in volume, and contains some remarkably fine productions. Max Müller has placed a very considerable knowledge of this literature within the reach of English readers, and made the terms Vedas and Puranas somewhat familiar. Religion and philosophy not only, but the sciences, are discussed at great length in these ancient tomes. Evidently, the Hindus in their best estate were a highly intellectual people, and it is not at all improbable that with the aid of this Sanskrit literature the scholarship of the future will be able to trace the stream of civilization, by a broad and unmistakable channel, and not by mere conjecture, to its very fountain-head.



GOVERNOR GENERAL'S PALACE, CALCUTTA.

AUSTRALASIA.

CHAPTER LXVII.

General Outlook—Each Colony Separately Considered—New South Wales—Van Dieman's Land, or Tasmania—South Australia—Victoria—New Zealand—Queensland—Western Australia—Australasian Independence.

AMERICA is called the new world, and Australasia might well be called the newest world, and positively the last. This globe has been thoroughly explored, and no continent or continental island remains to be discovered. The surface of the whole earth is now within the compass of human knowledge. Between the southeastern shore of Asia and the western coast of America stretch many small islands and some large ones, the more important of these being the group called Australasia, with an area of 3,425,000 square miles and a population of about 5,000,000. This portion of the British Empire (for such it is) has seven natural and political divisions. It is proposed in this exceptionally long chapter to present the more interesting facts in regard to each colony in their proper order.

New South Wales, as it is now called, was discovered by Captain Cook, in 1770, and eighteen years later, a convict colony was established at Botany Bay. The country was so beautiful, that Cook suggested a name reminding the reader of a choice garden, or site for villas; and the British government had no higher conception of the discovery than that it might serve as a depot, whereon the mother country could discharge the criminality that she was slowly ascertaining could not all be put to death. There was no realization that a country so desirable deserved a worthier population, or that a section of the people at home that trembled on the verge of pauperism, but had not been tainted by crime, had rights to an asylum in the new paradise. The urgent need was a corral for prisoners, and Botany Bay would serve.

The first shipment consisted of 565 male prisoners and 192 females, condemned to banishment for life. They were accompanied by sufficient military to guard against an otherwise possible outbreak, and the civil staff to administer the affairs of the settlement. Free settlers were not encouraged. Their presence might have interfered with discipline. There were free colonists, but they were people that could be relied on as aids in any *emeute;* and they were favored with convict labor to any extent desired in prosecuting their personal enterprises.

The area given up to the criminal classes and their custodians was ample, including all that is now South Australia, Victoria and Queensland, as well as the colony of new South Wales; and yet within fifteen years another convict settlement was established in Van Diemen's Land. The country was not overstocked, but the island presented advantages,

which could not be so easily secured on the mainland. The latter settlement was a dependency of the former, prisoners being transferred from one colony to the other, as well as shipped direct to Van Diemen's Land from Great Britain. For ten years from 1803, no free colonists were permitted in the new settlement. The island was a prison and nothing more. But in 1813 the desirability of free settlers, as part of a reformatory system, led to the home government offering grants of land to families possessing capital, and prison labor without charge, as inducements to take up their abode in the colonies. There was little difficulty in procuring limited emigration, as the climate in each case was good, in the case of Van Diemen's Land especially, and the soil could hardly be too highly praised. It was not until men arrived in the colonies that the heinousness of the system became apparent. It was hardly possible for imagination to present a picture of such conditions of life as were realized by the colonists after their acclimation.

Prisoners on their arrival in the colony, after the system was in full bloom, were housed in depots, waiting to be selected by free settlers. Sometimes the relatives of a criminal reached the colony before him, selected land, and were ready to take him as their assigned servant, so that in his case transportation was no punishment; but in the majority of instances prisoners, men or women, taken as assigned servants, were treated worse than slaves, as the master generally spoken of as the "cove" had no interest in preserving the servant as a piece of property. If twenty were worn out, other twenty could be procured to take their places, with no more trouble than sending an application, or calling to select from the next shipment. Usually the convicts were of the worst type, short of meriting capital punishment; and if there were any redeeming features in men or women, when first placed on the vessel for transportation, four to six months' life on shipboard, exposed to the contaminating influence of convict opinion, seldom failed to produce an inverted scheme of life before the end of the voyage. Some on each ship were as nearly demons as could be found on earth, and they were idolized.

The assigned servant was usually at the mercy of men very little superior in education or morals, as the better classes in Great Britain shunned the convict colonies, and if they must needs emigrate, found homes in Canada or in the United States, rather than expose their families to the degrading associations of penal settlements.

Servants who had offended their masters were sent to the stipendiary magistrate with a sealed letter, specifying the number of stripes they were to receive, and on that warranty without inquiry the prisoner was handed to the flagellator to be flogged as per mandate. After the punishment they were sent back to the employer knowing insubordination would be still more severely castigated. Wrongs of that class rankling in natures naturally brutal, resulted in conspiracies and murder, and then the fiends, goaded to desperation, betook themselves to the unsettled country, called "the bush," to subsist as bushrangers by spoliation until they were hunted down like wild beasts with the aid of native trackers and bloodhounds to lead the military and police to their lairs. Prisoners brought in after bushranging were hanged or sent to Norfolk Island, or attached to chain-gangs, compelled to work on the roads or public works, having manacles to drag that rendered their escape impossible.

Norfolk Island was a deeper pandemonium attached to Van Diemen's Land from 1825 to 1855, to which the worst criminals were sent as the last resort this side the gallows. The island is on the Pacific, about five miles long, by little more than two miles broad; and in that limited area, Dante might have gathered many unimagined tortures for the completion of the agonies of the damned.

This abhorrent system continued in New South Wales until 1840, and in Van Diemen's Land until 1853, after which no new shipments were sent from Great Britain to the colonies named. Queensland was also first settled by convicts in 1825, the country being then known as Moreton Bay; but that region was thrown open to free settlement in 1842, and in 1846 there were only 2,257 inhabitants in the settlement, including free and felon. Western Australia is the only settlement in Australasia, that is still cursed with the convict system, and its continuance there is due to the petitions of the inhabitants, addressed to the mother country, setting forth that the free settlers are precluded by the repute of the colony from obtaining free labor, and must be ruined if denied the aid of prisoners in the prosecution of their enterprises. Under such representations the colony is allowed 200 prisoners per

year, under protest from the other colonies, and the total population is only 26,166, including 1,790 prisoners. Western Australia was first settled in 1829, and developed slowly.

The total population of Botany Bay in 1788 was 1,030, of which number 757 were life prisoners, the remainder being guards, military government officials, and the multitudious hangers-on that always surround the fleshpots in Egypt, or elsewhere. The free population increased to 20,029 in forty years, and the convicts then numbered 15,669, of which total 1,513 were females. The growth of New South Wales was slow until the incubus of transportation was removed in 1840, and in the year following that event, there was an addition of 20,206 to the population. The decade following the discontinuance saw an advance to 265,503; but at that time the district of Port Philip was agitating for separation, and in the following year its desire was granted by its erection into the colony of Victoria.

Gold was discovered on several occasions in New South Wales before its discovery in California, but the free settlers were of the opinion that its exploitation would unsettle labor, and for that reason the auriferous wealth of the country was belittled, so that hardly any person understood the significance of "the find." The great geologist, Sir Frederick Murchison, addressing the Geographical Society of London in 1845, announced the probability of extensive gold-fields being opened in Australia; but it is only fair to mention that the precious metal had been then recently found near the Macquarie river, following up in a desultory way previous "finds" in 1829. The colony of New South Wales appointed a geologist in 1850, and about the same time a working miner in California, impressed with the similarity of the two countries, determined to return to the colony to search for a payable gold-field. Mr. Hargraves was fortunate in his investigations, as we find him in May, 1851, established at Ophir, near Bathurst, New South Wales, leading a party of miners whose operations speedily made that country the cynosure of all eyes. The surrounding colonies were largely depleted of their young and vigorous men by the rush toward Bathurst. Every vessel that put into an Australian port was immediately deserted, unless the commander had the wisdom to announce the ship to sail for Sydney; in that event he could man and load in a few days and procure any rates he thought fit to ask for freight. Port Jackson, the port of Sydney, was the busiest spot in Australasia as long as the colony enjoyed the monopoly of gold discoveries; but the other members of the group had long been playing at hide-and-seek with treasure, and Victoria offered a reward to any person who might open a payable gold-field in its territory. Later in 1851, discoveries in Buninyong attracted attention to Victoria, and since that date it has become well understood that the whole of the continent is auriferous. The colony of New South Wales in its first year of gold production raised $2,341,680 worth, and in the following year over $13,500,000. Subsequently the returns were larger, although never to exceed $15,000,000, and that amount included gold received at the mint from other colonies for conversion into coin and bars.

In four years from the establishment of Victoria as a separate colony, New South Wales had passed the highest point previously reached in population, continuing to grow rapidly until the year 1859, when the constitution of Queensland, as a separate government, reduced the aggregate from 342,000 to 336,000 in round numbers. The areas nominally governed, in the colony, as originally defined, were "all territory from Cape York in the parallel of 10° 37′ south latitude, to South Cape in latitude 43° 29′ south, including the islands in the Pacific within this latitude, and inland to the westward as far as the 135th meridian of east longitude," could not be even approximately administered by the official staff available, and, in fact, the elder colony did not attempt any such feat of statecraft. The process consisted mainly in drawing from the outlying portions the means to pay for the physical improvement of the governing center.

South Australia was cut off from the first colony in 1836, in the days of penal settlements, but that segregation did not seriously affect the total of population. The area of New South Wales at present is 310,938 square miles. Its greatest length being 900 miles, with an average breadth of about 500. On the north is the colony of Queensland; on the south Victoria; on the west South Australia, and on the east the Pacific Ocean. The population of the country, according to the latest returns, published in 1880 by the authorities in Sydney, gave an aggregate of 734,282 persons; the increase of the last year having been about 40,000.

Until 1855 government was by means of a nominee council, or legislature, to which the members of the administration were admitted, *ex officio;* after that time, responsible government was inaugurated. The parliament of two houses imitates Lords and Commons, and the governor represents the first estate. All money bills must be initiated in the lower house, on a message from the viceroy, and such legislation may be rejected *in toto,* but cannot be amended by the upper house. The British theory of rule by three estates is in fact carried out in the practice of the whole group of Australian colonies, except the colony of Western Australia, and the information now given will serve in all the cases indicated, the differences being trivial.

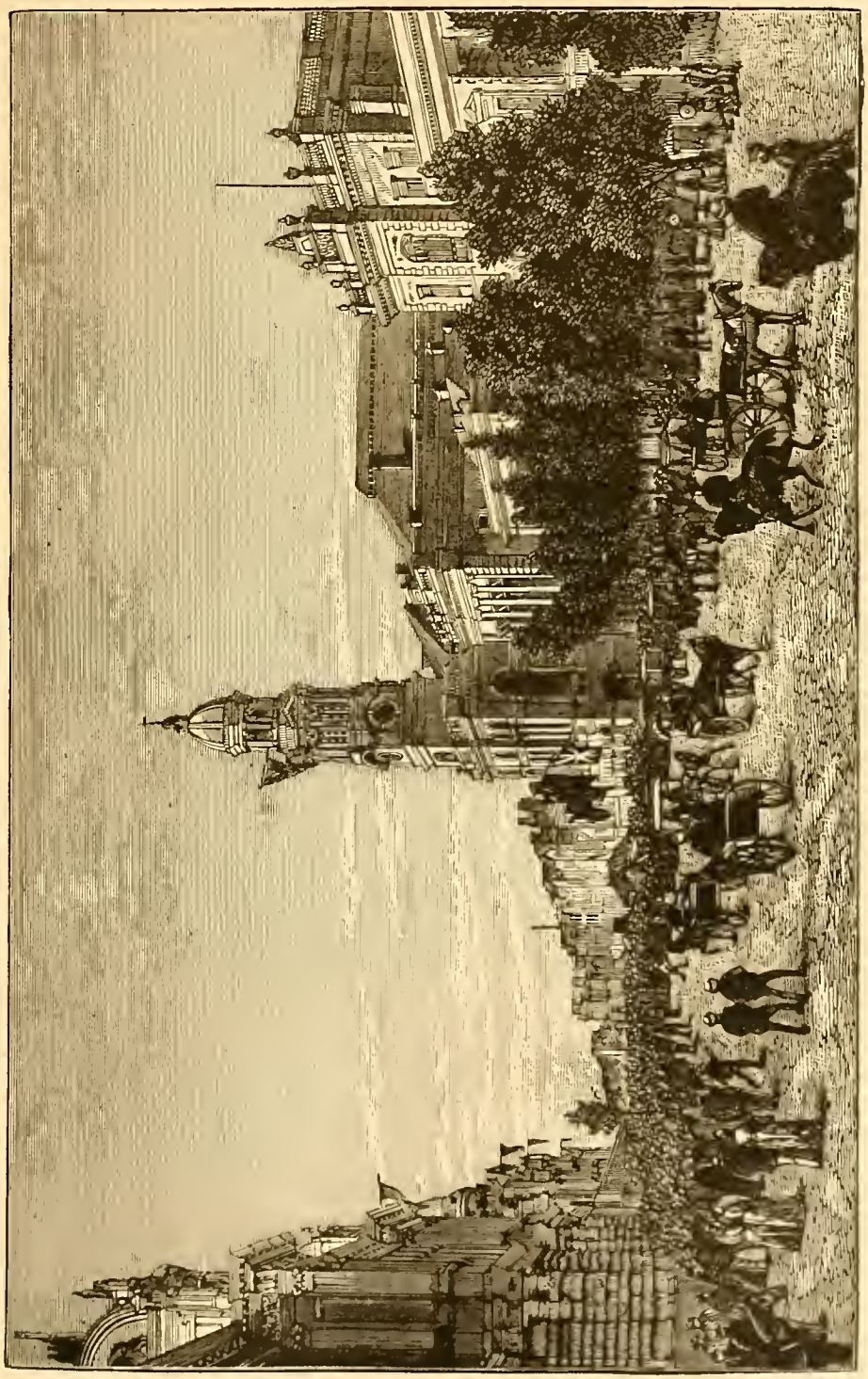
The council consists of twenty-one or more nominees appointed by the crown, as advised by ministers; there were thirty-nine members in 1878; and the assembly is an elective body of 102 members, chosen by universal male suffrage. The governor is the executive, but he is advised, and in most matters controlled, by a responsible ministry, raised to office on the votes of the lower house, and answerable to that body for every official act. The appointment of the governor rests with the home authorities, but the salary to be paid depends on the colonial assembly, with the proviso that no change can be made during a term of office to affect the salary and allowances of the then incumbent. The present governor receives $35,000 per year and a residence; and the ministry, eight in number, are paid, the colonial secretary $10,000, and the other ministers $7,500 per year. The governor is commander-in-chief of all the forces of the colony.

The public lands of the colony are made over to the people to be administered by their representatives, and the sale and rent of lands constitutes a large item in the revenues of the colony, amounting to more than half the receipts from all sources. There is no direct taxation; the second largest item of income being from customs duties. The annual outlay ranges from about $16,000,000 in 1870 to $27,500,000 in 1880, including $2,000,000 for new public works. The public debt of the colony amounted at the close of 1879 to $78,949,550, mainly incurred for railroads, telegraph lines and other public works, the property of the state. There were at the time named 600 miles of railroad open for use, and in the succeeding year 223 miles were added to the network. The telegraph lines at that date aggregated 8,472 miles.

From 1850, the year preceding the opening of the gold-fields, to 1864, trade more than quadrupled; but from that time there was a steady falling off for about six years, followed by a gradual increase until 1878. The chief exports are wool, tin, copper, tallow and preserved meat. The country is richer in coal than any other part of Australasia, and its gold-fields cover a vast area known as the Western, Northern and Southern fields; but the produce has not kept up to the figures that at one time promised to rank New South Wales among the great gold-producing countries of the world. The fiscal policy of the colony is a near approximation to free trade, and the crown lands are in part devoted to squatting, or what is known among us as ranche-keeping, and ordinary farming, the principal crops being wheat and maize. Cattle and sheep abound, and pigs and horses present large and profitable aggregates.

The colony now known as Tasmania, in honor of the Dutch navigator, Tasman, by whom the island was first discovered, was in the beginning named for a governor of the Dutch East Indies. Cook partly explored the country, and, as we have seen, it was for many years a penal settlement. That unfortunate commencement has detracted greatly from the success that must otherwise have attended on colonization in the midst of so many natural advantages. The area is estimated at 26,215 square miles, including a number of small islands in two groups, northeast and northwest. The country and climate invite settlement, and when the initial mischance has been lived down, its numerous advantages will make Tasmania the abode of the wealthiest families in Australasia. At the present time the outlook for the colony is not cheering. In 1853, 2,314,414 acres of land had been leased from the crown, yielding a rental of $147,845; but in 1877 the quantity leased had fallen to little more than one million, and the rental was only $31,960. Of more than four million acres of land sold at that date, less than one million was under cultivation. The country had fallen into bad repute, and something more than a mere change of name is requisite to give the infant state a new start in life.

The first years of the colony have been glanced at under the head of penal settlements, and need



ADELAIDE.

not be referred to in detail; but a new *regime* was inaugurated after the system of transportation came to an end. A constitution was granted to the colony, permitting all persons who possessed property to the extent of $1,000 in leasehold, or $150 freehold, to vote for members of the Upper House, and all persons occupying or owning houses, of the value of $35 per annum, or freehold property worth $250, to vote for members of the Commons. A commission in the army or navy, or holding a degree, or being in holy orders, entitled the person so distinguished to exercise the franchise for both houses; the actual fact being that education and respectability were the desiderata at which the constitution aimed, through provisos as to freehold and leasehold property. The substratum of society could not be entirely excluded from a voice in the administration of affairs; but checks were demanded.

The system of government described as operating in the other colonies obtains also in Tasmania without material change. The governor, appointed by Great Britain, is allowed $17,500; and he is advised by five responsible ministers, each of whom receives $3,500 per year. As in all the other colonies, the ministers must hold a seat in the Upper or Lower House.

The revenue of the government is derived mainly from customs, excise, and bonding duties; the territorial revenues are small, and manufactures are inconsiderable. The public debt in 1880 was $8,934,000, resulting from loans incurred to prosecute public works; the debentures redeemable before 1902. Population does not increase rapidly, but there is an increase of about ten per cent. The proportion of uneducated persons is large, but decreasing. Immigration is very slightly in excess of emigration, the movement being almost entirely between the colonies, as Tasmania has no attractions for Europeans looking to Australia. The same may be said of the commerce of Tasmania; it is purely local. Wool is the staple, but the island will repay expenditure of capital. Horses, cattle, sheep, and swine thrive; the soil is fertile; roads are excellent; there are large beds of coal; iron ore and tin abound, and gold-fields have been worked, which in 1879 gave returns to the value of about $729,000; exports of tin in the same time exceeding $1,500,000. Railroads were opened for traffic in 1871, and extensions have been made that aggregated 179 miles at the beginning of 1880. The telegraph system is also state property, and at the commencement of 1880, 781 miles of line were being worked. The department does not yet pay expenses, but viewed as part of a system of police, it is indispensable.

The colony called South Australia occupies the central portion of the Australian continent, between 12° and 38° south latitude, and 129° and 141° east longitude, stretching from the Indian to the Southern Ocean; a territory about 2,000 miles long by 500 miles wide; an area of 903,000 square miles, bounded on the east by Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland; and on the West by Western Australia. The country is just ten times the size of Great Britain. Colonization has been confined almost entirely to a small section in the south of the greater area, and much of South Australia is yet unexplored.

The prevalent characteristics of one colony are so nearly like the features of each other, that a brief description of South Australia may serve to delineate in a sketchy manner the whole of the continent. Particular and detailed pictures of the territory would demand pen photographs, inconsistent with the design of this work, so we content ourselves with a few general observations.

There are parts of the Pacific slope on this continent that so closely resemble Australian contours, that it is easy to believe that the two countries were at one time a continuous territory, subject to like influences for a geologic era; but there are no Andes nor great mountain ranges to give grandeur to the scene. Mountains, as they are called, in that country, might be described as mere foot-hills. The principal range in South Australia, known as the Flinders, rises north of the head of St. Vincent's Gulf, and runs several hundred miles north to Lake Blanche; continuing, after a break by the hills called the Hummocks, to Port Wakefield, due south and southeast, by ranges to Cape Jervis. At intervals, Flinders Range is followed by similar elevations, the highest points on Musgrave and Macdonnell being about 4,000 feet above the sea. Mount Lofty, the background of Adelaide, capital of the colony, is 2,334 feet high; and mounts Remarkable and Brown reach 3,200 feet. A succession of hills is all that can be said for them, by men who have seen the Cordilleras or the Altitudes in Colorado. The slopes and valleys are often of great beauty, and dotted

with homesteads, have a peaceful charm; but in many districts the soil is light, covered with scrub and brushwood. Considerable areas near the hills tell of the drenching rains that at times wash the vegetal matter and fertilizing salts from the ranges, and have made tracts of superb farm land not surpassed in the world.

Where the Mallee scrub once flourished, there are good pasture lands, not the most fertile, but excellent third-rate territory, on which squatters make fortunes, and over parts of which farmers combine grazing with agriculture. Saltbush and Myall Country, in the far North, remind the traveler of the saltbush plains, that used to torture pilgrims to Utah, in the days of Brigham's "Hand-Cart Brigades"; and on which so many hundred gallant fellows laid down their lives, during the early exodus to the Californian gold-fields. There are no great lakes. Where such desirable features are promised, the depth is inconsiderable, and the heat of summer leaves little more than a swamp. The country wants only extensive irrigation, to make a paradise for farmers and raisers of cattle. India already looks to Australasia for supplies of horses, and the wool of the continent is never surpassed. Wheat of the finest grade is produced in Australia, and it would be difficult to name a fruit that will not flourish.

The Murray is the only river of any volume in South Australia, and that is common to the three great colonies. It runs into the Southern Ocean, within the territory we are describing, rising near mount Kosciusko, New South Wales, and forming the boundary between that colony, Victoria, and South Australia; running about 2,400 miles, of which extent nearly 2,000 miles is navigable. The mouth is impeded by a shifting sand-bar, but that is no great difficulty. The rivers generally diminish from fair streams to creeks in summer, often becoming a mere succession of water-holes. There are lakes in the colony, the principal being Alexandrina and Albert — almost the only fresh-water lakes, the great majority being small and brackish.

The flora of the Australian continent is decidedly limited; set down a traveler in any part of the country, and it would be hardly possible for him to determine from the vegetation around him which of the colonies he inhabited, except that he could pronounce between the extremes of north and south.

Forest lands are mostly in the mountainous districts. The deep gullies are covered thickly with shrubs and ferns, and the table lands are well grassed. Vegetables or European fruits grow abundantly in the gullies, and on the grass lands wheat comes to perfection. The scrub lands fail more on account of surface water than from any want in the components of the soil. The saltbush is excellent feed for sheep and cattle, and the country can sustain almost unlimited stock. Artificial grasses thrive, and most squatters have some portion of their lands improved by their introduction for fattening their cattle and sheep.

The climate of the peopled portions of South Australia resembles that of Southern Europe; parts of Spain and Italy seem to be reproduced on the new continent, but the Alps and Pyrenees are wanting, and the idleness of both countries may also be sought in vain. The heat of the country does not oppress as much as lower temperatures on this continent, the atmosphere being less humid. There are but few days in the year in which the colonist desists from out-door labor on account of the sun, or of the hot winds—a kind of sirocco—that blow across the continent and strike all animal and vegetable life with desiccating dryness. March, April and May are pleasant months, and September, October and November. The spring and early summer could hardly be desired more beautiful.

Aborigines are seldom lovely, and still less frequently lovable; the Australian is no exception. They were never powerful in numbers or physique except in some few regions, and they are dying off, having no desire to learn the arts of civilization. Schools established for their benefit do not win their regard, and although they profess any creed in return for gifts of tobacco, their acquirements always end in smoke. It is supposed that they are allied to the Papuans, as although black, they are not of the Negro type. Their hair curls, but is not woolly. The men are not muscular, but they are tolerably well formed, built of bone and sinew. The women, worn out by incessant drudgery in the service of their thankless masters, are perhaps the least prepossessing human beings to be found on this footstool. They have few accomplishments and no ambition to rise above the status in which nature and accident have placed them. The weapons of the men are spears, throwing-sticks, waddies and boomerangs, and

they make shields of bark with which they will defend themselves from the assaults of numerous enemies as long as the assailants are not at close quarters.

The first year of this century was signalized from an Australian standpoint by the discovery of portions of South Australia by Lieutenant Grant of H. M. S. *Lady Nelson*, but it was not until 1802 that the country was surveyed by Captain Flinders. That gentleman was not very favorably impressed, or he failed to convey his impressions to others, as the country was left severely alone for almost an average lifetime after the visit of the investigator. A wiser and more daring explorer, Captain Sturt, in 1830, found his way from the Murrumbidgee to the Murray, and followed that river to its mouth in Encounter Bay, traversing the territory from New South Wales. The result of that journey, and the report of the captain was an application of gentlemen in London to the home government. An unfavorable reply, from the powers that were, deferred action for three years, but in 1834 the colony was founded on condition that no convicts should be sent there.

The first governor landed in Holdfast Bay in 1836, but prior to Captain Hindmarsh's arrival, the colony had been governed by commissioners. Nominee government continued until 1851, when a constitution granted partial election of the legislature. In 1856 responsible administration became the law under the system already described. Six ministers advise the crown, and are answerable to parliament for the management of affairs. The governor, who is commander-in-chief of the forces, receives $25,000, and ministers are paid $5,000 per year each. Public works of various kinds have been undertaken, including railroads, and that has resulted in a debt of $33,110,000. There were in 1879, 533 miles of railroad in use, and 405 miles in construction, besides 5,686 of telegraph line, inclusive of a line across the continent of 2,000 miles. The population of the colony exceeds 250,000 persons.

Wool, wheat and flour, and copper ore are the staples, and mining operations are extensively carried on, but nothing has yet been done in the way of exploiting the iron ore of the country. Great enterprise has been displayed by the colony in exploring the interior of the continent. About 250,000 square miles of territory are put to profitable use. Farmers are permitted to take up lands after survey with the advantage of credit to the extent of 1,000 acres of ordinary lands, or of 640 acres of lands reclaimed by drainage. Lands bought and sold in the colony pass by registration under the Torrens Act, and the saving in expense is great. The tariff of the colony imposes the highest duties on articles that can be manufactured in the country, but the people that administer the law call it incidental protection. There is only one colony that directly advocates and insists on protectionist legislation in the Australian group, and that is Victoria.

The northern territory annexed to this colony has one prosperous settlement at Port Darwin. The climate is tropical, the rainy season commencing in October and continuing five months; the greatest heat and rain coming together. Fever and ague is the great trial to which settlers are liable. The soil is fertile, and all tropical fruits flourish. Alluvial mines have been opened in many localities and are paying; but the population shows 2,070 Chinese and Malays to only 400 Europeans.

Victoria, once the Port Philip District of New South Wales, and at one time called Australia Felix, was first settled in 1835. The area of the country is not extensive, but the enterprise of the population and other advantages have given the community a lead in the affairs of the group, that is not likely to be soon lost.

Victoria is the southernmost colony on the continent, between the 34th and 39th parallels of south latitude, and between the 141st and 150th meridians of east longitude. Its coast line is about 600 geographical miles, extreme length from east to west about 420, and its greatest breadth about 250 miles. The colony embraces one thirty-fourth of the continent, being 88,198 square miles, a little less than the area of the main island of Great Britain. Blunders in defining the territorial lines between the colonies have given to Victoria a considerable strip of country, that properly belongs to South Australia. The bounds of Victoria, landwards, have already been given. She is shut in by the two sister colonies and the Murray. The southern boundary is the southern ocean, Bass's Straits and the Pacific. Captain Cook, in 1770, sighted Point Hicks, in what is now Victoria, the country probably having been visited by navigators more than a century earlier. Western Port was discovered in 1798, and the strait

that divides the continent from the Van Diemen's Land was sailed through and named for Bass in the same year. Port Philip Bay, the harbor of Melbourne, was discovered in 1802, and after that time the country became well known to the leading men of New South Wales; but its value as a pastoral region was not understood for one-third of a century. Colonel Collins, in charge of convicts, attempted to settle the territory in 1803, but happily he abandoned the enterprise in 1804, declaring the land unfit for habitation. Twenty years later the country was traversed by colonists from New South Wales, but settlement did not follow for ten years. In November, 1834, the Brothers Henty, interested in whaling, established their home at Portland, and remained in that section, although their occupations changed to squatting soon afterwards. The first settlement in Melbourne was made in May following by Batman, who bought of the natives 600,000 acres of land. Fawkner, who always asserted that he was the founder of the city, sent a party in August, and himself entered the settlement in October. The name Australia Felix was bestowed on the western portion of the country in 1836, by the explorer, Major Mitchell, since knighted. The administration of law in the settlement was inaugurated in the same year by Captain Lonsdale, resident magistrate, and from that date regular government was the rule. The governor of New South Wales visited and named Melbourne in 1837, and half acres of land were sold in the village for $175. In 1851 Victoria was allowed to assume control of its own affairs.

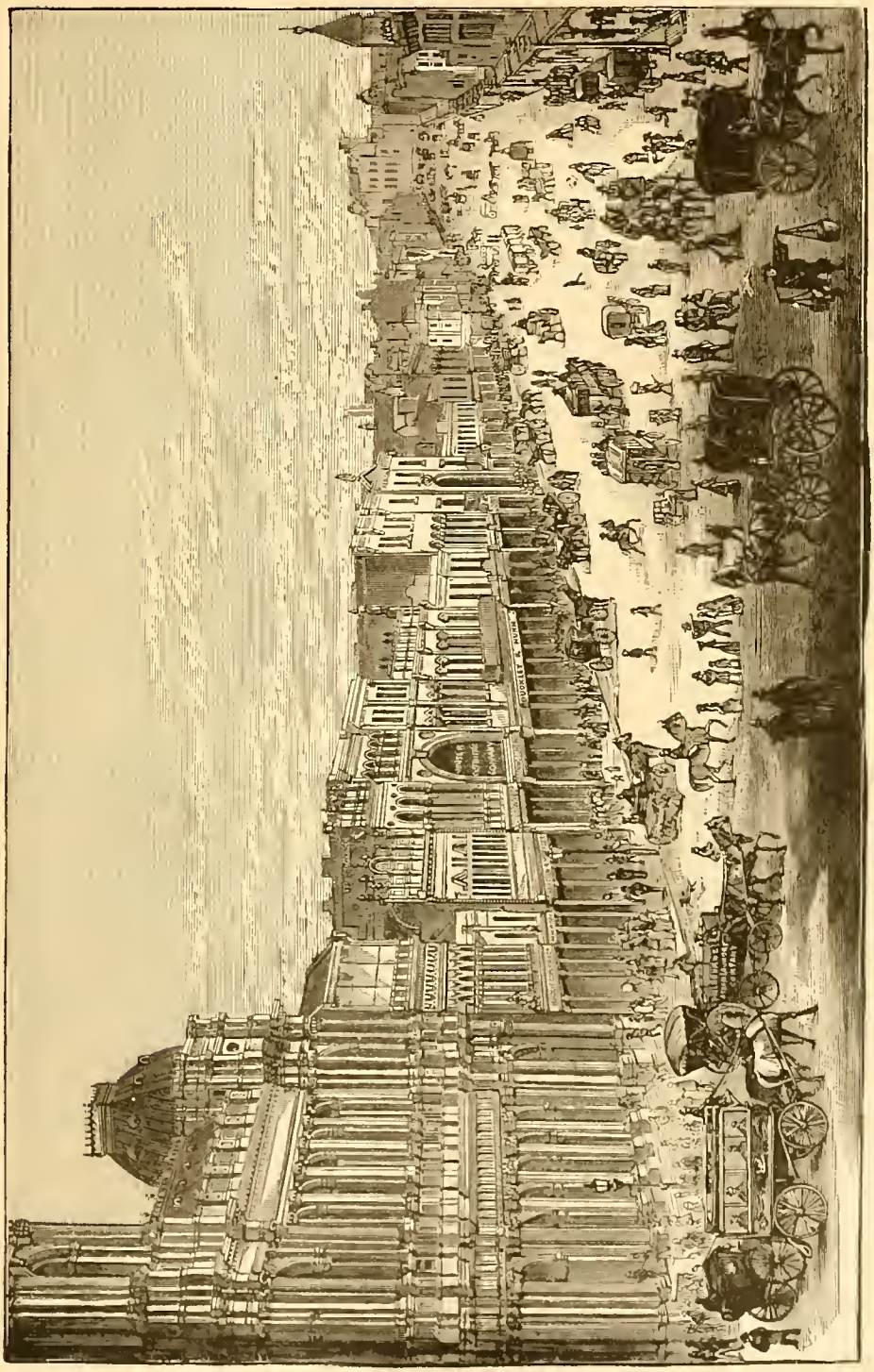
Gold had been discovered in several places, by squatters, but the significance of the "find" was not comprehended; it was only feared that publicity given to the auriferous condition of the soil would raise the wages of labor, and disincline the working class to serve as shepherds. The establishment of self government was immediately followed by more vigorous action. Active search for payable fields commenced, and finds were reported, in July and August. In September of that year all Melbourne was on the march toward Buninyong, where a good lead had been found.

The government imposed an extraordinary license fee on gold miners; a tax so great that only a few of the diggers could pay the imposition in advance. Gold-field commissioners and mounted police were sent to the gold regions, to arrest men found mining without a permit. Thousands of men on the gold-fields in the most prosperous times did not realize as much money from their operations as would have enabled them to pay the demands of the government and buy food.

Sir Charles Hotham was sent out as governor by the mother country, and he brought with him the manners of a man-of-war captain, impressed with the necessity for rigorous proceedings against the diggers. His line of policy was to worry the miners into rebellion by incessant hunting for licenses, and then crush them into submission by an overwhelming display of military force. He was successful. The miners of Ballarat built a stockade at Eureka, and presented front against the injustice with which they were treated; but they were not able to withstand the force of soldiery and police sent against them. The rebellion was suppressed, as were other *emeutes* on other gold-fields, and many prisoners were taken.

There was an attempt to rally the people generally in Melbourne, in support of the governor, but the demonstration was a failure, resulting only in calling out the mass of the population to denounce his high-handed proceedings. The martinet discovered that his work was only commenced, and he induced his secretary, Mr. Foster, to resign his office, assuming the blame that properly belonged to his superior. That was the end of absolutism in Victoria.

The new constitution was proclaimed in 1855, and after that the ballot was introduced, followed by an abolition of property qualification for members of the Assembly, and after a little while by universal male suffrage for voters for that house. Property qualification for voters and members of the council continues to be the law, but in each case the requirement has been reduced. Non-payment of members was found practically a disqualification of the non-propertied classes, and in consequence the people commenced agitating for that concession to justice. They were met on the threshold by the refusal of the upper house, representing property, to concur in any such measure. To allow payment of members was to diminish the power of the wealthier classes, and the fight was continued for years; but in the end the popular party, carrying the war into Africa, won the battle, and now there cannot be found on this footstool a more complete presentation of



MELBOURNE.

democratic government than is offered by the colony of Victoria.

Gold was raised in Victoria in the first year of the gold-fields to the value of $2,902,940, the mines not being opened, in reality, until September. In the next year the total exceeded $55,000,000, and in the following year, $63,000,000. It is useless to reproduce the figures for each year from that date to the present time; the vast population, that was almost exclusively employed on the gold-fields, has been largely called off to more satisfactory pursuits, and as a consequence the totals have dwindled under that head to an aggregate of about $15,000,000 in 1879, the total to that date being about $976,346,920. The calculation presented is based on an average of $20 per ounce for gold, and economists are well content to see the totals diminish, seeing that gold has never been raised to the price for which it sells.

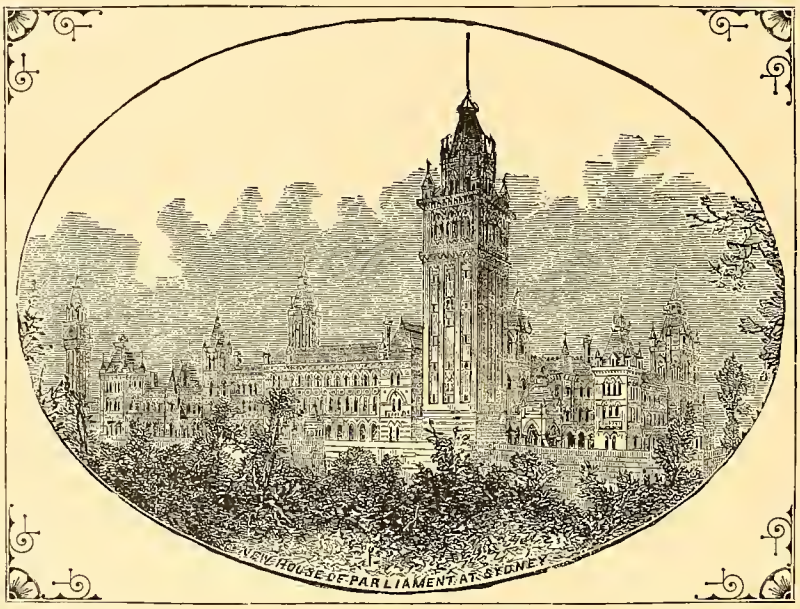
Victoria commenced its public debt in 1855 with a trifling loan of about $2,400,000. Its total in 1879 exceeded $100,250,000, all incurred for public works, on which sum the interest has never been behind by one day. There are 1,125 miles of railroads in operation, as shown by the returns in 1879, and at that time 165 miles in addition had been authorized by parliament. There were in use at the same date, 5,736 miles of wire in telegraphic work, and the number of messages exceeded 1,000,000 annually, the rates having been reduced, to bring the service within the reach of the poorer classes. All these works are the property of the state, and many others, including docks and the Yan Yean water works, are valuable assets. The gold-fields are being supplied with expensive reservoirs, some assisted by the government, and others entirely at the cost of the state, rates being charged for water supply.

The governor is allowed $50,000 per year, besides $10,000 for rent of the residence at Toorak; and the ministers are paid: $10,000 to the premier, $8,000, to the attorney-general, and $7,500 to the other seven. The leader of the miners in the rebellion at Ballarat, Mr. Lalor, is now speaker of the assembly, with a salary of $7,500 per year. Members of the lower house are paid: $1,500 per year. Members are elected to the assembly for three years, subject to dissolution, and to the council for ten years, a fifth of the body retiring every two years. The population of Victoria to the present time, is about 900,000. Gold, wool, tallow, and preserved meats are staple imports; wheat is also exported, but not in such quantities as to challenge a place in the record. The country is by far the most densely populated of the Australian colonies, with the most complete educational system, although it has not yet arrived at the eminence of being compulsory. The colony has an armed force and a navy for defense.

New Zealand is known to have been visited by Tasman in 1642, and again by Cook in 1769, but was not colonized until long after. It consists of two groups, the north and middle islands; but there are also several outlying islands, including South, or Stewart Island and Chatham Island. The coast line is about 3,000 miles, the group aggregating 1,000 miles in length by about 200 miles across. Its area approximates to 105,342 square miles, about two-thirds being fit for pastoral purposes and agriculture. The population in 1854 was 32,554, exclusive of maories, and the number in 1879 was reported 463,729, of which total about 300,000 were able to read and write. Gold-fields were first opened in 1857, in which year over $200,000 value was raised. In the following year there was a slight increase, followed by decreasing yields for two years, after which better "finds" were struck, showing in 1861 nearly $4,000,000, the next nearly $8,000,000, and subsequent yields that approximated to $14,000,000. The total yield, to the end of 1879, being $180,635,410. The maori, or native population, in 1878, according to returns then obtained, aggregated 43,595. They are very intelligent aborigines, capable of receiving civilization, and as farmers, are persevering and successful. In war a large amount of courage and skill has been displayed by them, taxing the powers of the colonists, and British military forces. The maories are now peacefully disposed.

The present government was established by statute in 1852, dividing the colony into six provinces, which were afterwards increased to nine. The suffrage is practically household, giving a vote to every person that is beneficially interested in the country. The system of government by provinces was superseded in 1875, when superintendents and provincial officers gave place to local boards and the governor. Legislation is vested in a parliament of two chambers, each member of either house being paid $1,050 per session. Four aborigines are elected to the lower house by the maories. The governor is the execu-

tive, having in consideration of his duties as governor and commander-in-chief of the forces, $37,500 per year as salary and allowance. He is advised by nine ministers, who are responsible for the administration of their departments, and for the general management of affairs. Two maories are always included in the cabinet, but they are not in charge of any branch of the government. The home government used to control native affairs until 1863, but since that date the colonists have been in the enjoyment of full responsibility. The seat of the general government is at Wellington since 1864; up to that date the capital was Auckland.



Public works have been very expensive in New Zealand, and their prosecution has involved the colony in a considerable debt, part of which is guaranteed by the Imperial government. The total to 1879 was $119,791,550. The Chinese in New Zealand numbered 4,382 in 1878, and of that number only eight were females. The natives of the Flowery Land have the same peculiarity in all their travels; they leave their better-halves under the shelter of "the Brother of the Sun and the Moon." They are not valued as colonists, partly on that account, but they are industrious and frugal, and grow rich on land that would hardly give bread to Europeans, either as gardeners or as miners. In some of the Australian colonies Chinese are subject to special taxation, to exclude them.

Population in New Zealand increases more rapidly by excess of births over deaths, and by immigration, than in any other colony in the group, and exports are increasing. Commerce in twenty years to 1878 has grown more than twenty-fold. The staple exports are wool, corn, flour, kaurie-gum and preserved meat. Gold was exported in 1875 to the amount of 318,367 ounces; in 1876 to the extent of 371,865 ounces, and in 1877, 310,486 ounces. Railroads were commenced in 1872, at the cost of the state by loans, and at the end of 1879 there were 1,171 miles open for traffic, besides 284 miles in course of construction. At the same date the length of electric telegraph in use aggregated 3,512 miles, which had sent during the preceding year 1,448,943 messages. The General Assembly in 1879 sanctioned further constructions to the extent of 938 miles extra broad, to be completed within the five years then ensuing. The completed lines, when prepared for service, are to cost $80,000,000.

The system of government in this colony is in the main similar to that described in connection with other colonies. Each colony is permitted to draft its own constitution, provided that it embodies the principle of responsible administration; but when the form has been adopted, as for instance in the case of Victoria, an appeal for change, beyond what is contemplated in the original instrument, is received by the imperial government, with a tone and demeanor that seems to say, "You have made your choice and must content yourselves to work out your own salvation." The bicameral system is by all the colonies treated as indispensable; but in course of time, in many of the states single chambers must be resorted to, because of the unaccommodating spirit that is manifested. The responsibility of rule can be borne by one chamber as well as by two or more.

We have already glanced at Queensland under the name of Moreton Bay, forming part of the penal

colony of New South Wales. That name ended when the settlement was cut adrift from its old associations, and the better title, Queensland, was bestowed with the constitution and powers of responsible government. Earliest colonization dates from the year 1825, when the first shipment of "government men" arrived. That was the euphonious method by which convicts were indicated; they were "government men." Seventeen years elapsed from that arrival, and in 1842 the country was thrown open to free settlers. An enumeration four years later showed a population of 2,257, including free and felon, and the transportation system at an end. The virus had not gone far enough to establish acute *pyæmia*, as in Tasmania. Change of name and improved habits have placed the country among the best conditioned communities.

The boundaries of Queensland are on the north, the gulf of Carpentaria on the east, the Pacific Ocean on the south, the colony of New South Wales on the west; the 141st meridian of longitude from the 29th to the 26th parallel and thence to the 138th meridian, north, to the gulf first named, "including all and every the adjacent islands, their members and appurtenances, in the Pacific Ocean and in the Gulf of Carpentaria." The dimensions were established by Her Majesty's order in council, when the first governor arrived, in December, 1859, and inaugurated responsible administration. Parliament consists, as in Great Britain, of two houses: the council of thirty members, nominated for life by the crown; the commons, or assembly of 55 members, chosen by ballot from as many electorates; voting among males being as wide as taxation. Holders of property, either leasehold or freehold, are in addition permitted to cast a ballot for each property, as well as for their residence. Considering the origin of the community, it is perhaps but natural that property should have been fenced about with safeguards.

The governor of Queensland, commander-in-chief and vice-admiral, as his commission runs, is allowed a salary from the imperial authorities, like all other such officials, merely to define his character as a civil servant, somewhere about $5,000 per annum; his allowance from the colony being $25,000 per annum. Responsible ministers, to the number of six, are paid $5,000 per year each, and are answerable to parliament for every act of the administration, as well as for their personal deeds. The revenues of the colony are derived mainly from sales and rents of public lands, customs duties, and excise. Public works and aid to immigration have compelled the country to incur a public debt. In 1879 the total liability of the colony was $50,960,430, but in the year last passed the parliament authorized the administration to raise a new loan of $15,000,000. Considering the vast area of the country, 669,520 square miles with a seaboard of 2,250 miles, and that the debt is a first charge on all lands and revenues, the public creditor is of course perfectly safe, and would be though the liability were largely increased. The population of the colony does not increase rapidly. It is dependent on Chinese and South Sea Islanders for a large part of all recent arrivals, and even with such questionable aids, the immigration of 1879 only aggregated 6,896, while the emigration for the same term amounted to 8,134. Similar results were chronicled in the preceding year, although the figures were not quite so unfavorable. The climate is semi-tropical, and Europeans suffer so severely from exposure to the heat, that none remain in the country longer than is absolutely necessary to protect their interests. The population in 1879 amounted to 217,851, including 13,269 Chinese at work on the gold-fields. The number of Aborigines in the territory appears to be undetermined.

Wool is the staple export, the other items being of small amount, including preserved meat, copper, and gold. Cotton and sugar-cane are said to flourish in Queensland; they have certainly been acclimated successfully, but the supply of suitable labor is so limited, that some time must elapse before the returns upon the outlay will sensibly affect the exports of the colony. There are probably about 25,000 acres under sugar-cane at the present time. Livestock does not flourish quite so well as in Victoria, but the figures under that head are satisfactory. Coal-mines have been opened and promise continuous yields; gold-mines, which were entered on in 1867, gave $6,532,155 value in precious metal in 1877. Railroads in operation in 1878 amounted to 298 miles, and at that time 113 miles in addition were in course of construction. At the end of 1877 the telegraph service of the colony employed 5,229 miles of wire with 112 stations. Like all the other colonies having responsible government in the Australian group, Queensland has an agent general

in London, whose duties are mainly to keep the friends of the colony in parliament advised as to its interests, which, added to the dignity of having such an officer, is perhaps a justification for the outlay involved.

The exceptional conditions of Western Australia, the only penal settlement now retained by Great Britain, and retained as such at its own solicitation, removes that colony from the category in which the other colonies of the group appear. It is the Ishmael of settlements, and if the hand of every other colony is not against it, the reason must be sought in the fact that its conditions are too feeble to demand much energy in dealing with all the mischief that it is capable of accomplishing. It is also supposed in its defense that "its poverty and not its will consents" to receive such poor yokefellows in the difficult task of building up a colony in Western Australia. The area of the territory is great, estimated at 1,000,000 square miles, its greatest length being from north to south 1,600 miles, and from east to west 1,000 miles. The actually colonized territory is within an area of about 600 miles by 150. The outlying territory operates as a kind of sanitary ground, over which the infected cannot approach the other colonies. Vessels from the pariah settlement are subjected to strict examination and social quarantine regulations on their entry to healthy ports. More severe measures were once threatened.

There is not responsible government, only the nominee system that has been mentioned before. The governor, who is paid $12,500 per year, discharges executive functions, and calls to his aid a legislative council of 21 members, seven nominated and the remainder elected. Property qualifications are demanded from voters and representatives; in one case a minimum of $50 per year, and in the other of $5,000 in landed property. Instead of a responsible ministry there is an executive council, composed of officials, including the judiciary, the professional heads of departments, and six secretaries of state.

The governor, within the instructions given to him with his commission, or subsequent directions from the colonial office in London, is dictator in the colony. His councilors have no control. The income of the state is derived from sales of land, leases, licenses, and customs; added to an imperial grant in aid of $76,620 per annum. In the year 1879 Western Australia incurred a debt for the construction of a railroad, amounting in all to $1,805,000. At the end of 1879 there were 78 miles of road open for traffic. The territory, as defined by the royal commission, includes all that portion of New Holland to the west of 129° east longitude. The first settlement was made in 1829, and 21 years later the gross total was only about 6,000 persons, bond and free. The last census, taken in 1871, showed only a population of 25,353, nearly 1,800 of whom were prisoners. The exports of the colony consist almost entirely of wool and lead ore; the value of wool in 1879, the highest point reached, was $787,945; and the lead ore exports for that year aggregated $56,875. Coal has been found in small quantities, and recent investigations favor the belief that the colony is rich in minerals, including copper.

It is highly probable that the Australasian colonies will, in the course of a few years, constitute themselves a republic after the manner of the United States, the home government being willing to afford the colonists every facility to carry out desires for independence whenever the popular will may take that form; and almost inevitably the city of Melbourne will be the capital of the nation in the day which no loyal Australian would wish to hasten. The Queen of Great Britain has no portion of her well-ruled empire in which her name is more revered than in Australia, but in the progress of human affairs, change is certain.

JAPAN AND THE JAPANESE.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

THE GREAT BRITAIN OF THE EAST—THE COUNTRY DESCRIBED—THE CITIES OF JAPAN—PRODUCTS AND POPULATION—MINES—EARLY HISTORY—JAPAN IN THE TIME OF CÆSAR—THE GREAT QUEEN—INTRODUCTION FROM CHINA OF LETTERS AND PHILOSOPHY—BUDDHISM INTRODUCED—FIRST CONTACT WITH EUROPEANS—JESUIT MISSIONS—THE DUTCH IN JAPAN—TYCOON IYEYAS—TWO CENTURIES OF PEACE—AMERICA AND JAPAN—FALL OF THE DAIMIOS—CHRISTIAN CALENDAR ADOPTED—NEW JAPAN—JAPANESE IDOLATRY AND SINTUISM—TRANSPORTATION—MODERN MISSIONS—JAPANESE LITERATURE.

DAI Neppon, or Nihon, is the native name of that "Sunrise Kingdom," known to Europe and America as Japan. This land of the dawn, which we are to visit, is not a part of the continent of Asia, sustaining to it much the same relation that Great Britain does to Europe.

Japan consists of four large islands and numerous minor isles, embracing "The Thousand Islands" of the Orient. The four large islands are Nipon, or Niphon, with an area of 95,000 square miles; Yesso, with 30,000 square miles; Kinsin, area 16,000 square miles; Sikok, 10,000. The entire area, including the 3,846 small islands, is about 150,000 square miles. The total length of the empire is 1,600 miles from north to south. Consequently the climate varies widely, but as a whole it belongs to the temperate zone.

Japan is the home of earthquakes. The country is mountainous; the mountains show volcanic effects. The highest peak, Fusiyama, 14,170 feet high, is an extinct volcano. The rivers are short, shallow and rapid. Throughout the empire there is only one fresh-water lake of any considerable extent. That is called Biwako, or Lake Orni.

Near this lake is the city of Miako, or Saikio, the western, or ancient, capital. Tokio, commonly called Yeddo, is the eastern capital. The former was long kept sacred from the intrusion of foreigners. It was built about 1100 years ago. It is almost surrounded by mountains. This ancient capital has a population of about 380,000 inhabitants. Tokio has about three times that number of people. The most important seaport of Japan is Yokohama, the third city in size. Its spacious and pacific harbor affords protection for ships. It is on the bay of Yeddo, and only twenty miles from the national capital. Osaca, on the island of Nipon, is second only to Tokei in population. Next to Yokohama in size ranks Nagasaki, on the island of Kinsin. Neigata, on the northeast coast of Nipon, Kobe, near Osaca, and Hokodate, on Yesso, are the remaining cities of some magnitude.

Japan is highly cultivated, so far as it is arable. The population, by the census of 1872, was 33,110,825, and it requires good tillage to support so large a number of inhabitants on an area so small, as com-

pared with population. The same census gave the number of farmers as 14,870,426. The mulberry tree, with its silk-worm, and the tea-plant, furnish the main articles of export. Raw silk goes to Europe in large quantities. The surplus tea of the country finds its way, most of it, to this country. For home consumption rice is the chief product of Japan. It exports more to the United States than to any other country, and imports more from England than from any other, although the import trade with the United States is increasing very rapidly.

Speaking of the rural population, a recent visitor to that country writes, "The farmers are a simple-hearted and industrious race. Rakes, spades, and plows used by them are of rude construction. Sometimes the plows are drawn by oxen, but just as frequently by men, women or children. They show great kindness to animals, very few of which, however, are to be found in the empire." The grass in Japan is so coarse that sheep and cattle cannot thrive upon it. The few domestic beasts of Japan are fed on grain exclusively. The people live almost exclusively on rice, fish and radishes, with some potatoes, fowl, onions, pumpkins, and the like. The fruits of Japan are of an inferior quality.

SCENE IN TOKIO.

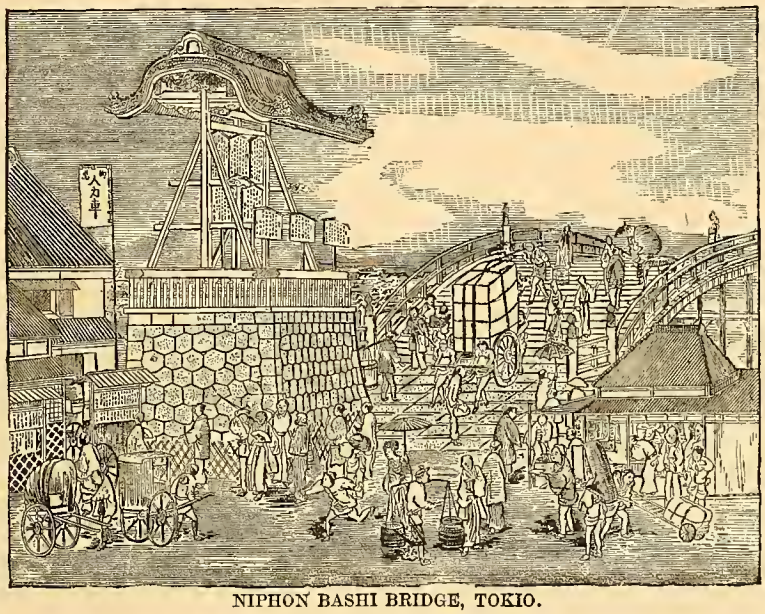
The mines in Japan are very important. Gold, silver and copper are exported in large quantities and have been for a long time. It is said that between the years of 1550 and 1639, the Portuguese exported from that country not less than $297,500,000 in gold and silver. The yield has fallen off in late years, but it is still a very important feature of Japanese resources.

It is now time to turn our attention to history. It is impossible to fix a boundary line between fable and reality, legend and authentic history, with any degree of precision. The Japanese have a literature running far back into the remote past, and some things are credited by them which are simply incredible. The people themselves believe that they had national existence about 2500 years previous to the present empire, and that was established by Zinmu about 2,500 years ago. According to that the period of the Japanese world does not differ much from the period of the Christian and Hebrew world.

This Zinmu was a great warrior, and established his kingdom over the entire area of Japan. It was in his day that the people of that country learned to divide time with some degree of accuracy into months and years. That fact perhaps, rather than any great exploits and conquests, makes the year B. C. 667 the beginning of definite computation and narration in Japan. The emperor, or mikado, was also high-priest, or pope.

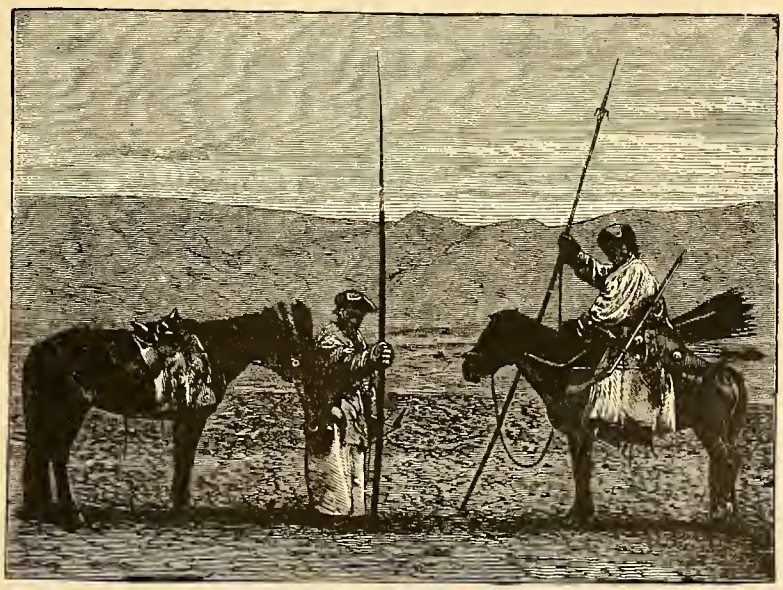
The first capital was Kaswabara, but it was changed several times. Saikio, or Miako, was the capital for nearly a thousand years. It was removed from there to Tokei in 1867, as one of the results of the great revolution to be explained later. Native writers agree in stating that the total number of emperors in unbroken line was one hundred and twenty-four. The emperor, or mikado, became so

sacred and august a personage that he could not stoop to practical statesmanship, and for a period of six hundred years the real rulers were the tycoons, or shiogoons. Originally the tycoons were the military chieftains. They ruled by fear and frequently involved the country in civil war over their rival and hostile ambitions.



NIPHON BASHI BRIDGE, TOKIO.

The first census of Japan was taken B. C. 97. The emperor who caused this enumeration of his subjects was Sujintenno. He built a powerful navy and established commercial relations with Corea, irrigated the arid land and drained the lakes. Evidently he was a great statesman. It was his successor, Quinintenno, who abolished the hideous practice of requiring the empress and her court to commit hari-kari upon the death of the emperor. His humane reforms extended to other things, and the actual civilization of Japan was greatly advanced by him. He also paid much attention to irrigation. During his reign 800 canals and ponds were constructed in the interest of agriculture. After him came Kekotenno, who had the land surveyed and large grain warehouses built, in which the surplus of the years of plenty could be stored for use in the years of scarcity.



JAPANESE SOLDIERS.

In the year A. D. 200, a woman ascended the throne of Japan, Jingu Kogu, the widow of the emperor Chinaitenno. She had been her husband's companion in arms, and her scepter was a sword. She led her army to victory over Corea. She acquired more renown than any predecessor, and to this day the painters and poets of Japan delight in setting forth her exploits. At that time the art of working in silk was unknown in the empire. It was introduced from Corea during the reign of her son.

Late in the third century of the Christian era, Chinese literature and letters were introduced into Japan, and Confucius became the great philosopher and teacher of the

Japanese. His practical ideas commended themselves to their approval, and they adopted him as their intellectual father. The introduction of Chinese letters was a very great event. "Prior to that event," says Lanman, "their own tongue does not appear to have been reduced to writing." About that time the favorite Japanese musical instrument, the koto, was invented. The emperor, Osintenno, son of Jingu Kogu, also introduced from China improvements in silk culture and manufacture. Dikes were constructed to guard against inundation, and rice-mills built.

DAI BUTSA, OR, THE GREAT BUDDHA.

The first national history dates from A. D. 400. One hundred years later Buddhism was introduced. It also came through the gateways of Corea and China, and it found ready acceptance, rapidly displacing the old Sintu worship. The national character was very materially modified by this religious innovation. The higher classes were especially influenced by it, and it became the fashion for the emperors to abdicate and adopt the life and habit of the Buddhist priesthood.

One of the truly great works of art in Japan is the bronze image of Buddha, fifty feet high and admirable in proportion, which stands solitary and grand on the little island of Eno-Shima. It is called *Dai Butsu*, or "The Great Buddha."

The mild and meditative religion of Buddha did not prevent war, civil or foreign. An attempt was made to subjugate China. It resulted in failure and the bootless invasion of Japan by the Chinese. It was found that either could repel the other; neither could subjugate the other. Even among the disciples of Buddha in Japan there arose war. The priests quarreled so bitterly that to their animosity is attributed a great conflagration, which in 1536 destroyed about one-half of the capital. During the period known as the Dark Ages in Europe, Japan was on very nearly the same plane, as regards civilization, as that continent. The records of that period in both cases should be written with blood.

The first connection between Japan and Europe, so far as known, dates from 1541. Some Portuguese traders voyaging from Siam to China were wrecked on the coast of Kinsin. The national records make mention of the fact on account of the firearms which the strangers had. Two years later the Portuguese opened important communications with Japan for the double purposes of traffic and evangelization. The Jesuits and the merchants kept each other com-

pany. It was in 1549 that Francis Xavier, called "the bright and morning star of modern missions," visited Japan. He spent ten years in the establishment and superintendence of Jesuit missions in India, Ceylon, Japan and Malacca, baptizing, it is said, a million converts. Two of those ten years were spent in Japan. Such was the progress made by missionaries of the cross, that Tycoon Nobu Nanga, who rose to eminence in 1557, like Constantine the Great, espoused the cause of Christ from motives of policy. He waged war upon the Buddhists, beginning his crusade in 1569. A great many lives were taken and temples destroyed. The Jesuits were delighted with their progress. In 1581 their communion numbered 150,000. But the triumph was short, and the reaction destructive. Buddhism had a firm hold upon the people, especially the higher classes, and the seeming prosperity of the Jesuits was due to no real sympathy with their mission. With a change of power came the reaction, and the Jesuits were swept out of the country, utterly and ruthlessly. They appealed to the sword, and fell by it. In 1585 they were ordered to leave the country within twenty days, and desist at once from preaching and baptizing. Those who should disregard the warning were threatened with death. But for some time the execution of the threat was evaded. The Jesuits had ships of their own, and the tycoon concluded that instead of sending them away it would be better to employ those ships in war with Corea.

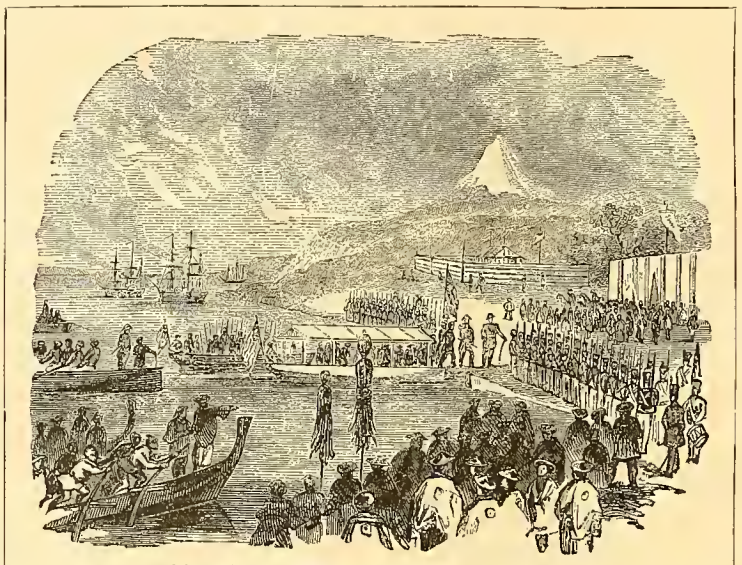
JAPANESE WOMEN.

It was the last year of the sixteenth century that the English and Dutch mariners first visited Japan. The English never made much headway in establishing commercial relations with that country until our own times. The Dutch were more successful. They seem to have succeeded in convincing the Japanese authorities that they had no religious designs, but were purely commercial and financial in their purposes. Such certainly was the fact, and for quite a long period after the representatives of all other parts of Europe had been expelled, the Dutch were allowed to maintain a trading post at the island of Hirado, and the profits realized from this monopoly of European commerce were very considerable. The overthrow of this monopoly was brought about by the United States. But before passing to that revolutionary event we must return to the political affairs of the empire.

During the year 1600 a battle was fought near Lake Orni which gave to Iyeyas total authority over the country. This soon removed the capital to Yeddo. He gave the country a most admirable system of laws, and established justice upon so firm a foundation that for more than two hundred years after his death the land had peace. No portion of Christendom could ever boast so conspicuous practical exemplification of the religion of the Prince of Peace as the Japan of that period. The first American ship in Japanese waters was a man-of-war commanded by Commodore Bidell. That was in 1846. The naval visit which accomplished practical results was made by Commodore M. C. Perry in 1853. He negotiated a commercial treaty with Japan which was the beginning of one of the most radical revolutions that country ever experienced. The next year Sir James Sterling of the British navy arrived at Nogasaki, determined to secure for England as much latitude of commerce with Japan as had been granted to the United States, and he was successful. Other nations followed, and the Dutch monopoly fell, and with it Japanese exclusiveness, to a very consider-

able extent. Trade was limited and hedged about with many restrictions. The new policy was firmly established by 1858.

Japan, like France and Italy, had its Renaissance. It began about the first of the eighteenth century. There was a great revival of learning, a mighty intellectual development. The government at Yeddo, as it was then called, had presumed too much and gone too far in ignoring the lawful authority of the Mikado at Mikio. When in 1868 the Tycoon, now for the first time officially taking this title, negotiated treaties by which foreigners were allowed some commercial privileges, that innovation was made the occasion of revolution. The battle of Fushimi was fought, and the daimios and their leader put down. Suddenly as if by magic the power which had been supreme for centuries was crushed and the Mikado moved from Kioto to Yeddo, henceforth Tokio, and became in fact, as in theory, the supreme authority in the nation.



COMMODORE PERRY LANDING IN JAPAN.

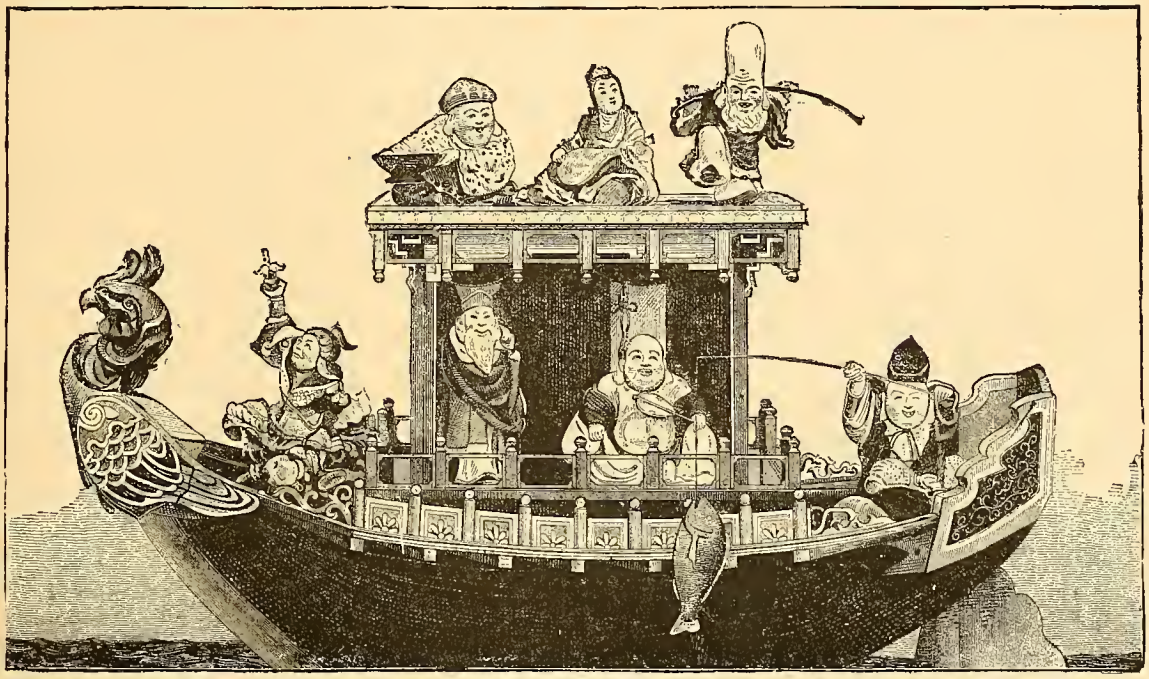
The immediate object of the revolution was not obtained. The Mikado found that what the Tycoon had assented to he could not escape from. The foreign governments were quite too powerful and their navies too strong to be defied by a kingdom of islands. A little injury was inflicted upon property owned by foreigners and a few outrages committed (for which ample indemnity was soon paid), and then the Japanese accepted the situation. The government and the great mass of the people were so well pleased to be rid of the daimio despotism that they were in no humor to maintain a quarrel with foreigners. "Finding," says an able writer, "it impossible to drive out the foreigners, as many of the patriots desired, the new government ratified the treaties, and thenceforth followed in quick succession those radical changes in the national policy which made Japan the wonder of the nations. The feudal system, after seven centuries of existence, was abolished in August, 1871, and the daimios made to reside as pensioners at Tokio. The Mikado appeared in public as the active patron of the dock-yards, light-houses, hospitals, schools, colleges, railways and telegraphs which were rapidly established." Finding that isolation was impossible, Japan entered with enthusiasm upon a study of Western civilization, fully resolved apparently to adopt and adapt the latest improvements of the day. In a short time a flourishing newspaper press was established, and the decimal system of reckoning money, as it obtains in the United States, was adopted. The Japanese *sen* corresponds to our dollar. National banks on the American plan were established. They now number over 200. The western postal system is also in vogue there. The English postal savings system has been adopted, and is very largely patronized.

All these changes were not wrought without some very stubborn resistance, especially in Kinshui. These rebellions required the intervention of the military for their suppression. The chief of these was the Satsuma rebellion, led by Saigo Takamori. It began February 1, 1877, and lasted seven months. The rebels numbered 37,500, and the losses in killed and wounded on both sides amounted to about 15,000.

The total public debt of Japan, September 1, 1878, was $375,725,677, all of which was held at home except $13,399,016, held in England. These figures include the paper money in circulation, $121,-054,731. By the operations of a sinking fund the debt, foreign and domestic, is being obliterated.

The first line of railroad, from Hiogo to Osaka, 25 miles, was opened in the summer of 1875. At the close of 1879 there were open to business 76 miles of railway, with 140 miles in process of construction and 455 additional miles chartered. The mileage of telegraphs at that time was 1,935. The standing army is about 80,000, with a militia, or home-guard liable to duty, of 5,000,000. The navy consisted in June, 1878, of three iron-clads, one gunboat, and several wooden vessels.

political control. As Sintuism is the indigenous religion, it deserves especial consideration. The worship of the sun is its fundamental idea. The moon is also an object of adoration. The emperors claim descent from the sun. Image worship, or idolatry, abounds. There are gods of war, rice, riches and the like. Perhaps the most curious feature of Sintuism is the seven happy gods, who are represented in a way quite foreign to occidental ideas of deity. The Japanese, whatever his religion, worships his ancestors, and reverence for parents is carried to an extreme unknown in Europe or America.



THE SEVEN HAPPY GODS.

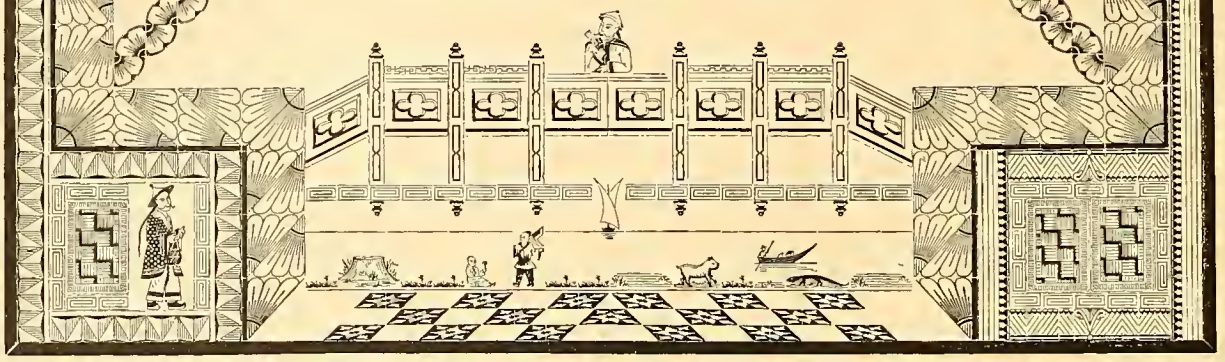
In theory the government is an absolute monarchy; in practice it is a responsible ministry.

The empire is divided into thirty-eight *kens*, each having a governor appointed by the central government at Tokio. There are three imperial cities, Tokio, Osaka and Kioto, governed by mayors. The area of the rice-fields is 5,585,900 acres; of the other cultivated fields, 3,817,300 acres.

In 1872 the calendar of Christian nations was adopted, and it may be said that old Japan dated from B. C. 667 to A. D. 1872. The ancient faith has 97 temples, the Buddhists 296,900, sustaining a priesthood numbering 168,654. But new Japan has by imperial decree abolished the religious machinery of former days, so far as the same was subject to

The government school for boys (Kaiseiyak-ko), at Tokio, employs German, French and English teachers, and thousands of boys and young men may now receive a complete education in the science and literature of these different nations. It is the science and worldly wisdom of the Occident, far more than its religion, that the Japanese are disposed to adopt. Japan has a voluminous literature, and the great majority of the people can read. No European or American has ever yet discovered in their books, whether prose or poetry, any flashes of genius.

CHINESE EMPIRE.



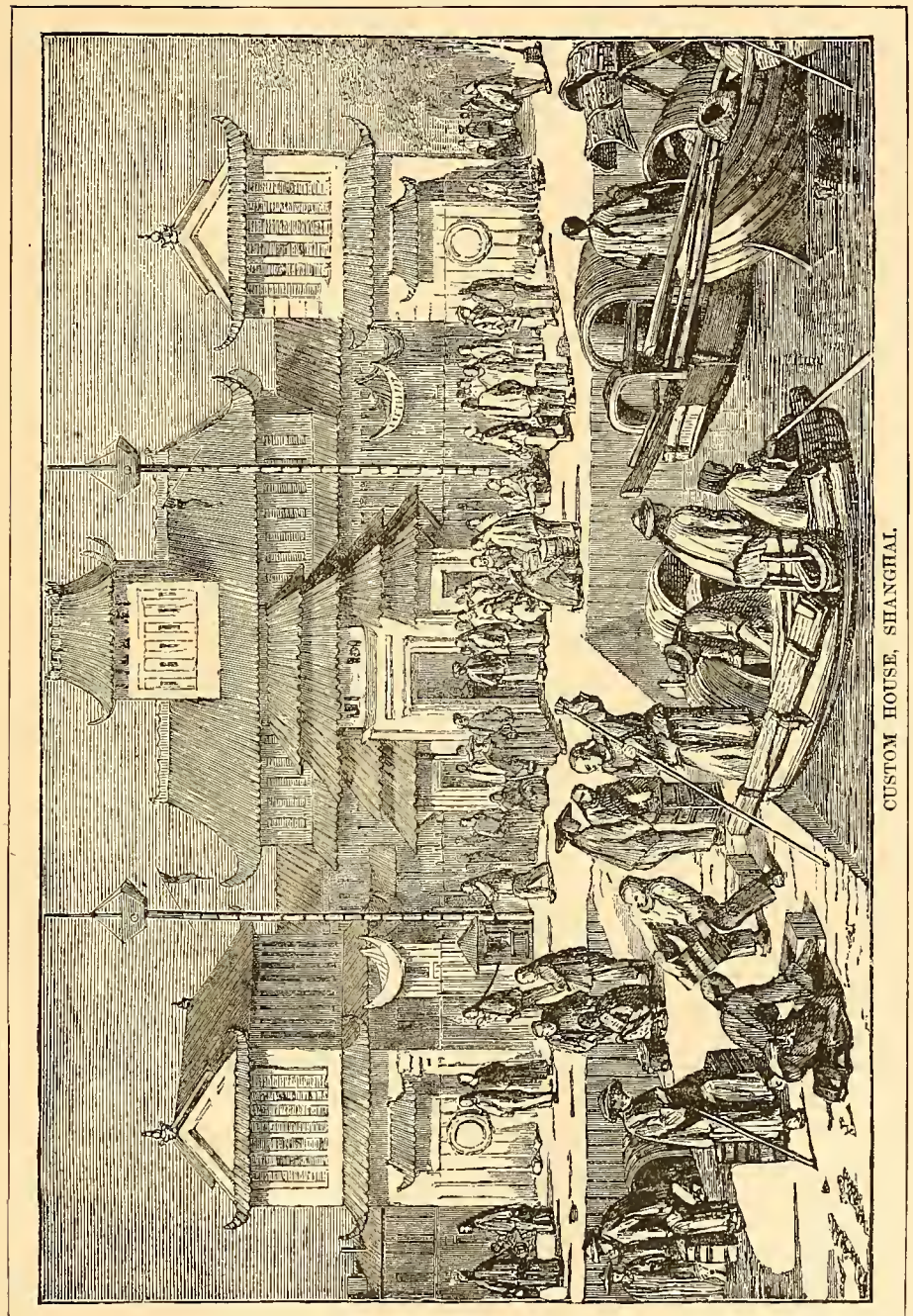
CHAPTER LXIX.

TERRITORIAL EXTENT—CHINA PROPER—THE CHINESE COAST—THE SHANGHAI REGION—THE VALLEY OF THE HWANG-HO—THE INTERIOR—PRODUCTS—THE RIVERS OF CHINA—THE CLIMATE—THE FORESTS—THE FLORA OF CHINA—GEOLOGY OF THE COUNTRY—MINERAL WEALTH AND PETROLEUM—CHINESE ANIMALS—COREA AND ITS EXCLUSIVENESS—MANCHURIA AND THE MODERN TARTARS—MONGOLIA—THIBET AND THE GRAND LLAMA.

CHINA, embracing China Proper, Corea, Manchuria, Mongolia, Tibet and Eastern Turkestan, and exclusive of Cochin-China, Siam and other merely nominal tributaries, covers an area of 4,740,000 square miles. This is equal to nearly the whole of continental Europe. It extends from the parallel of north latitude 18° 30′, which runs nearly centrally through Soudan, Africa, and falls about sixty miles south of the City of Mexico, to north latitude 53° 25′, almost corresponding to the parallel of Liverpool, England, and the northern extremity of the Province of Quebec. In longitude it stretches through fifty degrees, from the 80th to 130th meridians. Russia bounds it along its entire northern line, of nearly 3,000 miles; the Pacific Ocean (or its subdivisions known as the Japan, the Yellow and the China Seas) washes its entire eastern and southeastern boundary, of more than 4,000 miles in extent; Cochin-China, Burmah, British India, Bootan, Sikkim and Nepaul border it on the south and southwest, and the latter and Russia on the west.

China Proper, or that portion which is distinctively Chinese in civilization and autonomy, embraces only about half of this vast empire, yet it has an area nearly equal to that of Germany, Austria, France, Italy, Spain, Norway and Sweden, and the British Isles united, having a coast-line of about the same contour and length as that of the United States on the Atlantic, and a land frontier estimated at 4,400 miles. With the exception of an inconsiderable projection in the northeast, between the Gulf of Pe-chi-li and Corea, it corresponds in latitude with that portion of the United States south of the southern line of New York State and that part of Mexico north of the city of Vera Cruz. It lies south of all Europe, except the southern portions of the Spanish, Roman and Grecian peninsulas and their outlying islands. About half of China Proper is hilly or mountainous, containing a large proportion of lands which cannot be cultivated even by the laborious methods of terrace-farming and artificial irrigation, so largely practiced in that country.

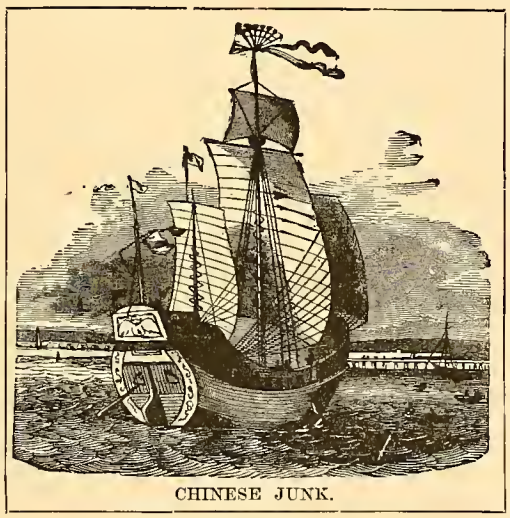
From its southernmost limit, on the gulf of Tonquin, to the Chusan Archipelago, nearly a thousand miles northward, the lookout of China on the sea is indescribably cheerless. A range of disintegrated granite mountains frowns, or, under a tropical sun, glares, on the passing voyager all the way. Treeless, shrubless, almost bladeless, their flanks of rotten granite gullied into red and yellow gulches, and their



CUSTOM HOUSE, SHANGHAI.

intervening ridges and summits heaped with blackened boulders, these desolate mountains yield no hint of the rich, populous interior just behind them. But within a hundred and fifty miles of Shanghai the prospect changes. Here the charming Chusan Archipelago appears off the Bay of Hangchow. These islands are beautifully terraced from their summits to the sea. Temples perched on the principal eminences or on the ledges of rocky promontories, where they can only be reached by steps cut in the solid rock, stand embowered in lovely groves; shrines dot the waysides; walled towns and unwalled villages are seen on every side; and around all glistens the sea, animated by gaily pennoned junks and bevies of fishermen's boats.

Not far north of these islands appears the low, flat, alluvial plain, on the edge of which stands Shanghai, in the delta of the river Yang-tse-Kiang. This plain is one of the most remarkable geographical developments of China. It extends inland from Shanghai (in north latitude 30° 10′) towards the south 150 to 250 miles; westward, from 300 to 500, and northward about 800 miles, to the gates of Peking and the base of the mountains over which climbs the great wall, the northern boundary of China proper. From its southern verge, on the bay of Hangchow, to its northern limit, on the gulf of Pe-chi-li, only the bold, mountainous promontory interjected between the Yellow Sea and the gulf of Pe-chi-li, constituting the greater part of the province of Shantung, intervenes between this plain and the ocean. In the interior this vast sea of verdure sweeps northward past the Shantung promontory, comes out to the gulf coast beyond it, and continues about a hundred miles still farther north. From the west the mountain ridges and lines of foot-hills which make the water-shed between the tributaries of the two great water-courses of China, the Yangtse and the Yellow rivers, project into it. From south to north, through its greatest length, runs the Grand Canal, about 800 miles in length, one of the grandest achievements of man, considering the early age in which it was constructed, whether regarded as a feat of civil engineering, or as a project of political and commercial sagacity.

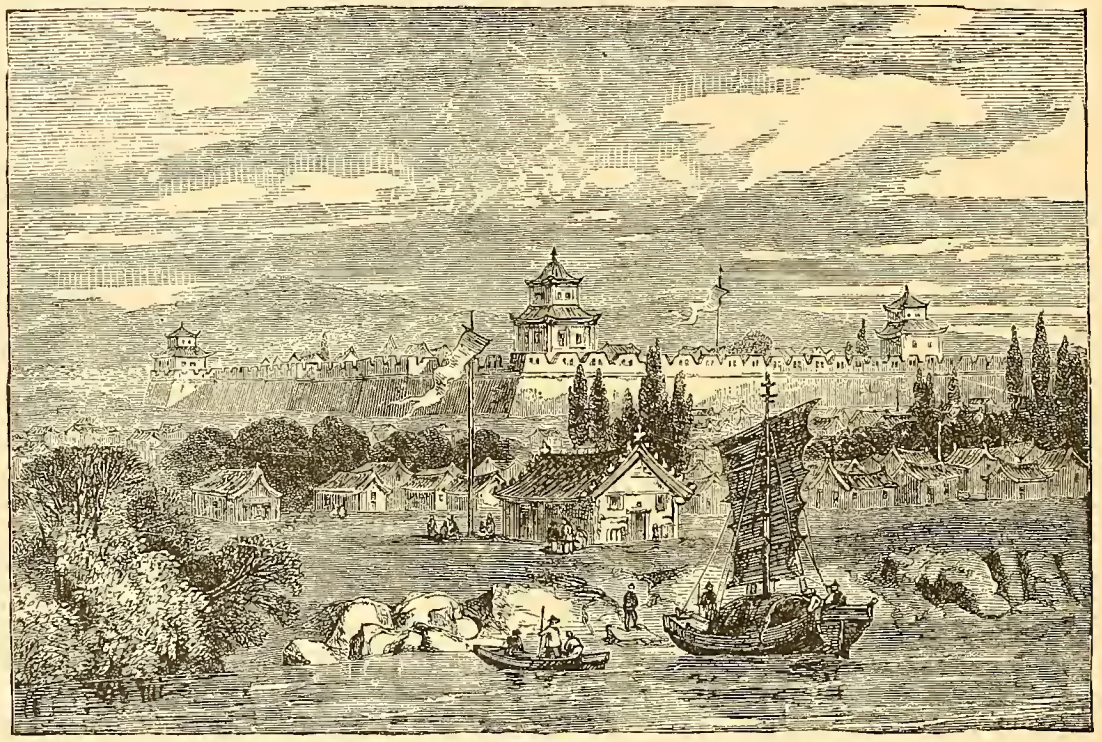


CHINESE JUNK.

This whole plain, except in seasons of extreme drought, or when the Yellow river overflows its banks (which, like those of the lower Mississippi, are in many places higher than the surrounding country) and floods whole districts, is one unbroken sea of harvest. Rice, maize, millet, mulberry, cotton, sugar-cane, vegetables of every variety, and orchards, interspersed with innumerable cities, towns and hamlets, fill the entire region. Westward of this wide, extended plain lie several large, populous provinces of rich valleys and table lands, finely watered by the sources and upper tributaries of the Yang-tse and Yellow Rivers, and varied by hill and mountain scenery growing more and more wild and romantic as it extends westward and southward, until the limits of China Proper are reached in the lofty mountain chains which make the boundaries of Kokonor and Tibet, and the glaciered heights of the Himalayas. Southward of the Yang-tse river, the mountains and hill country, bordering the Great Plain, are the favorite habitat of the tea-plant. The bulk of the teas and their *choicest varieties* are produced on the beautifully terraced hill and mountain sides of this rough, broken region. Rice is the principal grain raised in this portion of the country, which yields nearly all the fruits produced in the south-temperate zone and the tropics, in America. Oranges, bananas, pomaloes (or shaddocks), peaches, pears, and smaller fruits known in our markets, and mangoes, lichens, arbutus, lungans, carambolas and other fruits peculiar to Asia, grow in abundance. Sweet potatoes and ground-nuts (or peanuts) and yams are produced in large quantities.

The rivers of China are numerous, but only a few of them are of great length. The principal of these are the Hwang-ho, or Yellow river, in the northern

provinces, the Yang-tse-Kiang in the central provinces, and the Se-Keang, or Western river, in the south. The Peiho, a narrow and exceedingly tortuous stream, in the northeastern province, the Ningpo river, emptying into the Bay of Hangchow, a little south of the Yang-tse, and the river Min, in the province of Fuh-kien, are all navigable for ocean or foreign river steamers only to the head of tide water, a distance of 12 to 100 miles. The Pearl, or Canton, river, a branch of the Se-Keang, is now navigable for the same class of vessels about sixty miles. The Yellow river, though a stream of immense length and often of enormous volume, has a broad, inconstant channel, full of shifting sand-bars, and is practically unnavigable for anything but small native flat-boats. The one grand river of China is the Yang-tse-Kiang, which is navigated by daily lines of American and English-built steamers, mostly of the Hudson river pattern, for a distance of 750 miles, and could be used for several hundred miles further by vessels like those employed on the Ohio and the Upper Mississippi. Rising in the province of Tibet, among the Min mountains, it enters the western central province of Sze-Chuen, and, first making a great bend to the north, receiving its chief tributary, the Hean-Keang (a river of about the size of the Ohio), then curving for more than three degrees to the south, it finally bears northward and eastward again, and empties into the Yellow Sea in north latitude 31°. From its source to the sea it traverses not less than 2,900 miles.



TIEN-TSIN.

Through the lower 750 miles of its channel it is thronged in all seasons of the year with native craft and large numbers of foreign-built vessels, many of which are owned by native guilds.

The climate of China Proper corresponds in the main to that of the United States and northern Mexico in the same latitudes. The winter temperature in the northern provinces is rather milder than in the corresponding latitudes of the United States, and is not quite so mild as in the same belts of Europe. On the other hand, the summer heat averages somewhat higher than it does in this country and Europe.

This may be due in part to the fact that so large a portion of China is denuded of forests; which also accounts for the small rainfall and slight humidity of many parts of the country, and frequent famines consequent thereon. The most thickly settled parts of the country, whether in the plains or in the mountains, are quite bare of timber, the exceptions being chiefly the groves around the temples and monasteries of the several religious orders; where the priests protect the trees, partly for the purposes of ornament and the delectation of themselves and the devotees who throng here in the hot season to enjoy the cooling shade and romantic beauty of these sylvan retreats, and partly as a source of revenue. For lumber and wood-fuel the most populous regions are now dependent mainly on the timbered districts far back in the sparsely inhabited mountain regions, or upon importations by sea.

China, one name of which is "The Central Flowery Kingdom," is unusually rich in the variety and commercial value of its flora; particularly as regards its shrubs and flowering plants and trees. Through the painstaking efforts of early Dutch and English gardeners many of the latter have been acclimated in Europe, and distributed from Holland and England into the gardens and hot-houses of all the civilized world. Of the useful shrubs and trees whose products are eagerly sought for by all nations, the list is remarkably long. The principal ones are the tea-plant, cinnamon, camphor, the mulberry-tree, ginger, rhubarb and ginseng.

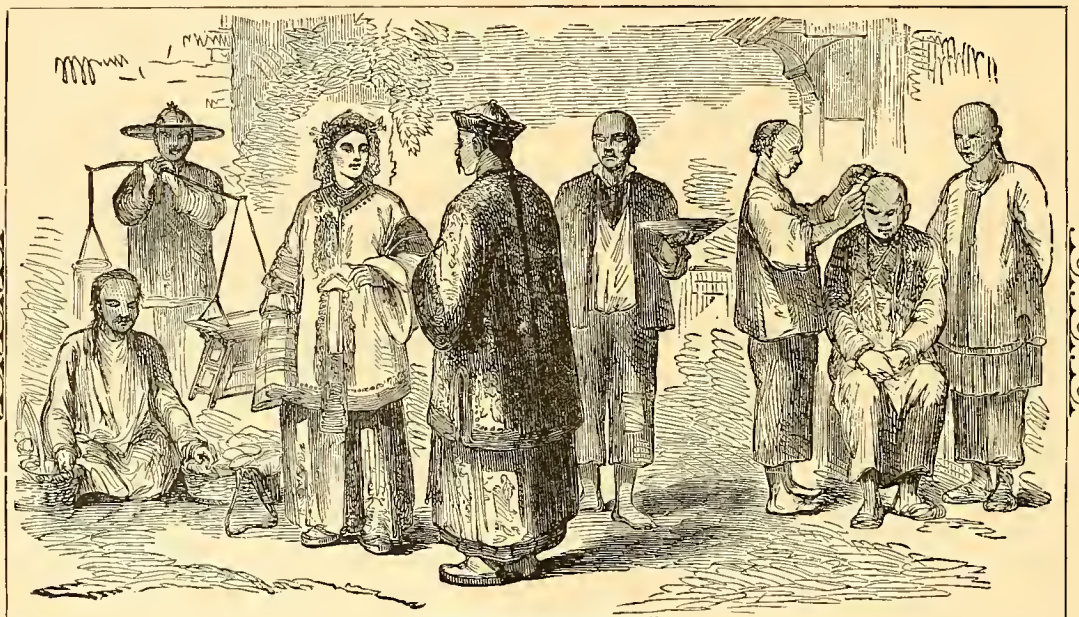
Comparatively little is known of the geology and mineralogy of this country. It is certain, however, that northern China is largely covered with the loess formation, identical in nature with the loess of the Rhine, and the similar formation covering eastern Kansas, Nebraska, and southeastern Dakota to the depth of from fifty to several hundred feet. No more fertile soil and subsoil have been discovered in any land. The mountains and hills of southern China are for the most part of igneous origin—composed largely of a rotten feldspathic granite, easily excavated with the pickaxe, interspersed with quartzose boulders and blocks of gneiss.

Iron, copper and coal are known to exist, the latter of good quality and in large quantities, and of late the Chinese government has consented to the employment of foreign capital and mechanical appliances for mining it. Petroleum has been discovered in several parts of the country, and if foreigners were permitted to explore for it by right methods there is good reason to believe it would be found in paying quantities. China imports many thousand gallons of kerosene from America every year, and the trade is constantly increasing at a rapid rate—when a little encouragement from the Chinese government would lead to home manufacture equal to all their present demands, and much more. Gold and silver are found in small quantities, but the government jealously restricts information of this nature, and the product is a matter of mere conjecture. The mineral wealth of this great empire lies as yet undeveloped. When Western learning has raised up a class of Chinese scientists and civil engineers, and the imperial government becomes more tolerant of foreign enterprise, then the rich mineral treasures of China will burst into view in the midst of the hundreds of millions of people that crowd Asia in all quarters, and the stories of the caves of Aladdin will be surpassed by the new-found wealth of Cathay. Already enough is known of these regions to warrant the fulfillment of this prediction.

The fauna of this empire comprehends all the genera and most of the species of animals known to Asia. All the domestic animals of Europe and North America are found here. Tigers, lions, leopards, and other beasts of prey haunt its southern and southwestern jungles; apes and monkeys are found in the districts bordering on Cochin-China; and the Bactrian camel and the elephant are reared in the west and southwest, from which regions troops of camels come and go along the great caravan routes of Central Asia. Venomous reptiles are numerous, of which the most dreaded is the cobra, the scourge of India. Birds of innumerable varieties, from the diminutive humming-bird to the condor and the eagle, are native to the country. Among those remarkable for the beauty of their plumage are the silver and the golden pheasant, the argus-bird, paroquets of several varieties, the cockatoo, the peacock, the mandarin duck, and humming-birds of more than a dozen species—"flying flowers," as the Chinese call them. Food birds of delicious quality are found in large quantities, including the rice-bird, quails, snipe, woodcocks, pigeons, pheasants, and ducks and geese, both wild and tame. Fish of excellent sorts are taken in large quantities from the rivers and along the coast, and are raised in arti-

ficial ponds, this kind of food being the main reliance of a large proportion of the inhabitants for their supply of meat-food, particularly in the south-eastern provinces.

North of China Proper lie Corea and Manchuria. The former maintains the most complete self-isolation, excluding foreigners from direct social or commercial intercourse, with a rigor unknown to the Japanese at the time that Commodore Perry first visited them, to negotiate the treaty that has succeeded in bringing Japan into the general comity of nations. It is death for a foreigner to enter Corea without special permit, and the latter is very rarely given, and then under the severest restrictions and a system of intolerable espionage. It is for the most part a fertile country, well diversified with hill and vale. The government is a despotism. Still people are industrious, and seem to be contented. Suffering for lack of the necessities of life is thought to be almost unknown. The attempts of the United States to lead the rest of the world in opening the ports of Corea to commerce, as it opened Japan, although persistent, have effected little beyond the amelioration of the condition of sailors wrecked upon that coast. Such unfortunates were, until very lately, either massacred or held in perpetual slavery in Corea, to prevent their reporting what they had seen of this sealed and mysterious land. Manchuria, the native land of the present Tartar dynasty of China, lies north of Corea and China Proper, stretching northward to the Amoor river. It is composed in large part of delightfully diversified regions of fertile hills and vales, covered with extensive forests, broad native parks of oak openings, and vast areas of prairie land, nearly all lying within the same latitudes as Iowa and Minnesota, or France and Northern Spain. Other portions of it are rugged and mountainous, bleak and barren. This entire country is divided into three



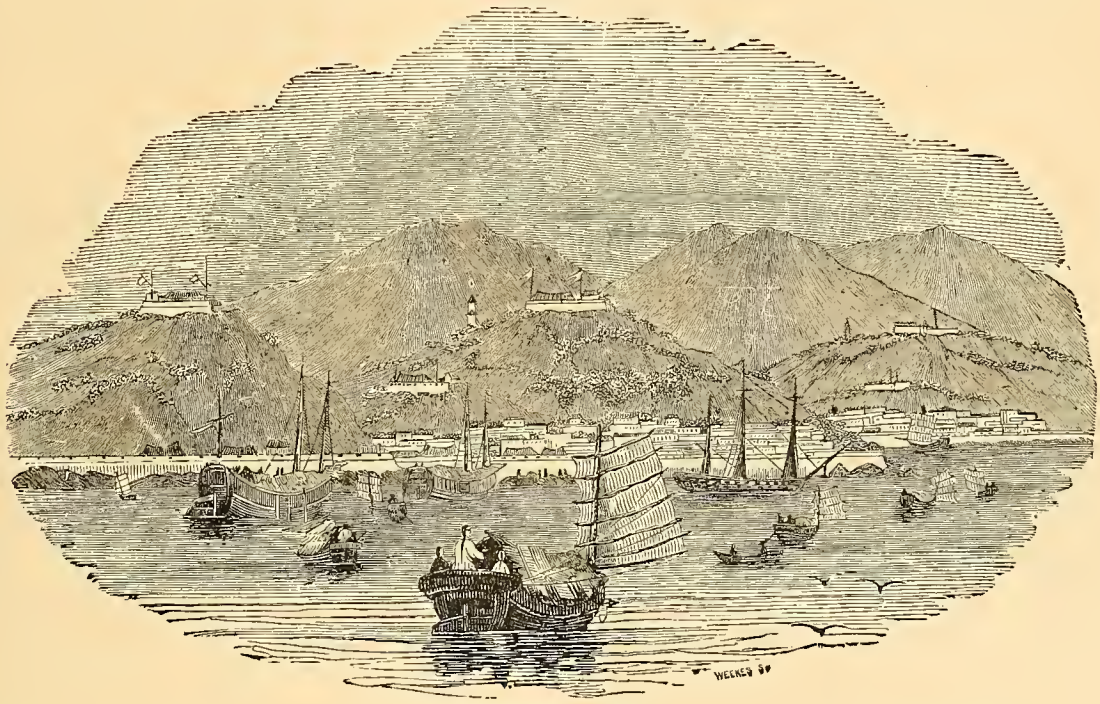
CHINESE STREET SCENE.

sub-provinces: Moukden (or Shin-king), Kirin, and Tsi-sti-har, of all which a great part is believed to be as capable of high cultivation as the American and European States generally are. Yet, with the exception of the small district of Moukden, which contains a considerable population of Chinese agriculturists, mechanics and traders, it is still the home of nomads, a region roamed over by a people scarcely more nearly assimilated to Chinese civilization than are the Sioux of Dakota to that of the adjacent American States. The merchants of the few rudely constructed trading towns and stations of this region are Chinese; the Tartars themselves preferring to live by the chase, fishing, and a rude style of agriculture but little bet-

ter than that practiced by the North American Indians before recent efforts to civilize the latter. In fact, not only in this respect, but in many other of their practices in peace and in war, as well as in physiological distinctions, they bear striking resemblances to several North American tribes.

Mongolia lies west of Manchuria, on nearly the same parallels. It has the lofty Altai Mountains in the north, the snow-covered Ala-shan and Kin-shan Mountains in the south, and several lateral ranges, between which extend plateaus of different degrees of elevation, from 900 feet to over 3,000 feet above the ocean. There are many dreary deserts in this immense country, but, on the other hand, there are broad areas of fertile prairie land and rich hill and valley country, as capable of producing enormous crops of wheat and maize as are the plains of Kansas and Nebraska. But with the exception of limited portions settled in part by Chinese agriculturists and traders, they are under the control of nomads, in a state of semi-barbarism, kindred to that of the Manchus. Mongolia is rather nominally than really subject to the ruling dynasty of China, to which the Mongols acknowledge hereditary allegiance, while they maintain their ancient Tartar form of government.

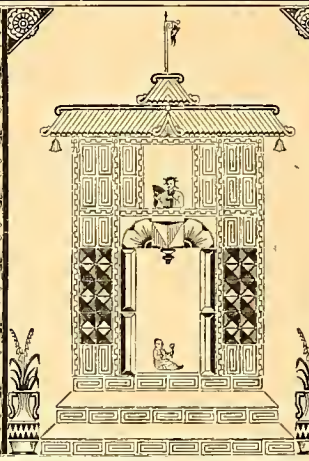
South of Mongolia, and directly west of China Proper, are piled the mountains of Kokinor and Tibet, with their glaciers surpassing those of all the world besides, and their intervening fertile valleys and plains and burning deserts. Tibet is the throne-land of the Grand Llama, who is pope to a church of many millions more than confess allegiance to the Roman pontiff. He resides at the sacred city of Lassa, renowned in all Buddhist countries for its holy temples and immense monasteries. The people are engaged chiefly in agriculture, herding, and a rude form of mining for silver, gold, copper and precious stones. Most of them live in the greatest poverty, the prey of despotic rulers and swarms of idle monks who infest the countless monasteries and constitute a larger ratio of the population than the religious orders in any other part of the globe. The history and civilization of the Chinese people will form the subject of another chapter.



VIEW OF AMOY.

CONFUCIUS.

THE CHINESE.



CHAPTER LXX.

THE CHINA OF FABLE—TABLE OF DYNASTIES—THE AGE OF CONFUCIUS, AND THE GREAT WALL—PEACE ON EARTH—THE MOST CIVILIZED LAND—KUBLAI KAHN AND MARCO POLO—INTERNATIONAL COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE—POPULATION OF CHINA—THE GOAERNMENT—REVENUE AND TAXATION—PECULIARITIES OF THE PEOPLE—FOOD—OCCUPATION—ARCHITECTURE AND ART—EDUCATION AND OFFICE-HOLDING—THE HANLIN UNIVERSITY—RELIGION OF CHINA.

CHINA is undoubtedly the oldest of now existing nations. Its ports, like those of Greece, claim eons upon eons when the earth was filled with demigods, demons and giants. Some of these fables refer the origin of man to a point of time more than 2,800,000 years antecedent to the birth of Christ. The earliest epoch of rational Chinese history begins with the reign of Fuhi, 2,825 years before Christ, or only 303 years after the deluge—reckoning according to Hales' Chronology, which nearly corresponds with that of the Septuagint. Perhaps some credence is due to the traditions of the two fable-obscured sovereigns immediately preceding Fuhi. One of these, Yu-chow, is said to have led the Chinese into China from the far West, down the left bank of the Yellow river, and to have settled them in some measure, in its great bend, in the province of Shansi, teaching them to exchange their shifting tents for huts of boughs and trees. His successor, Sin-jin, the "Preacher of Righteousness," laid the foundation of the Chinese war-ship of Shang-te, the "Supreme Ruler," which is the only state religion of China to this day, and of which the emperor is the sole priest. He was also, they believe, the discoverer of fire, by friction of two pieces of wood. However that may be, he encouraged his people to set up permanent homes and hearths, and abandon nomadic life.

Fuhi, who began his reign B. C. 2,852, organized the people into tribes with distinct names, heads, and judges. He also discovered iron, and taught men to use it for implements of peace and war. He was the Tubal-Cain of China. After reigning 115 years, he was succeeded by his son, Shinnung, the "Divine Husbandman," who invented the plow, and encouraged men to engage in agriculture, and taught them the use of herbs. He reigned 140 years, and was succeeded by the usurper, Hwang-ti, about B. C. 2,697. Hwang-ti was a great general and a wise ruler. He taught the people arts and manufactures, encouraged learning, and instituted the sexegenary cycle, by which the Chinese still reckon time. The first of these cycles dates from the sixty-first year of Hwang-ti's reign, or B. C. 2,637, i. e., 518 years after the Deluge. He seems to have had no little knowledge of astronomy, and he established the Chinese calendar with a true understanding of the length of the year, not recognized by the Romans until nearly 2,650 years later. His wife, Seling, in-

vented and taught the art of silk-spinning and weaving. He reigned 100 years and was succeeded by three kings of much less importance, when the reign of Yau the Great began, B. C. 2357. Here commences the authentic history of this wonderful nation. The historical writings of Confucius, the records of his great book, the "Shuking," go no farther back than Yau. Under this sovereign and his successor, Shun, there was a remarkable flood, or overflow of the Yellow river, along which the densest population had settled. Shun called Yu to his aid, and by deepening the bed of the river, opening new channels, and casting up dikes, the inundation was assuaged and the fields reclaimed. Yu became the founder of the first Chinese dynasty, that of Hia. The sovereignty, theretofore regarded as elective, became from this time on hereditary in the eldest son; and the records cease to claim for sovereigns reigns of improbable duration. It is impossible in this volume to do more than name the several dynasties which from that time have ruled the destinies of China, as in the following table:

Dynasties.	Founder.	No. Sovereigns.	Years.	Eras.
Hia	Yu, the Great	17	439	B. C. 2205 to B. C. 1766.
Shang	Ching-tang	28	644	B. C. 1766 to B. C. 1122.
Chan	Wu-Wang	35	873	B. C. 1122 to B. C. 249.
Tsin	Chwang-siang	3	47	B. C. 249 to B. C. 202.
Han	Liu-Pang	26	423	B. C. 202 to A. D. 221.
After Han		2	44	A. D. 221 to A. D. 265.
Tsin		15	155	A. D. 265 to A. D. 420.
Sung	Liu-Yu	8	59	A. D. 420 to A. D. 479.
Tsi	Kau-ti	5	23	A. D. 479 to A. D. 502.
Liang	Wu-ti	4	55	A. D. 502 to A. D. 557.
Chin			30	A. D. 557 to A. D. 587.
Sin	Yang-Kien		31	A. D. 587 to A. D, 618.
Tang	Li-Yuen	20	289	A. D. 618 to A. D. 907.
After Liang		2	16	A. D. 907 to A. D. 923.
After Tang	Chwang-Tsung	3	13	A. D. 923 to A. D. 936,
After Tsin		2	11	A. D. 936 to A. D, 947.
After Han			4	A. D. 947 to A. D. 951.
After Chau	Ko-Wei		9	A. D. 951 to A. D. 960.
Interregnum			10	A. D. 960 to A. D. 970.
Sung		9	157	A. D. 970 to A. D. 1127.
S. Sung		9	153	A. D. 1127 to A. D. 1280.
Yuen	Kublai Kahn		88	A. D. 1280 to A. D. 1368.
Ming	Hung-Wu	16	276	A. D. 1368 to A. D. 1644.
Tsing	Sun-chi	9		A. D. 1644 to ———

The third dynasty is remarkable for its great length of rule, 873 years—the longest known to history. It was during the sixth century of this dynasty that Confucius arose. The country increased in population and developed in resources during this long period, notwithstanding the many internecine wars growing out of the resistance of feudatory lords to the power of the emperor. Learning was cherished, and men of letters were conspicuous in the councils of the government. The usurper, Chwang-Siang-Wang, after having exterminated the last of the Chau dynasty, and reduced all the petty states to his sway, assumed the name of "The First Emperor," and addressed himself to the extinction of all past history. He ordered the principal scholars of the realm to be put to death, all books were to be delivered up to be destroyed, under penalty of death, and the royal and provincial libraries were burned. The loss to China and the world can never be estimated.

Although this emperor was one of the greatest military commanders in all Chinese history, and although he constructed bridges, dikes, canals, and many other public works, crowning all his feats of civil engineering by building the Great Wall of China, one of the marvels of the world, the name of this vandal emperor lives now mostly in execration. His dynasty survived him only seven years.

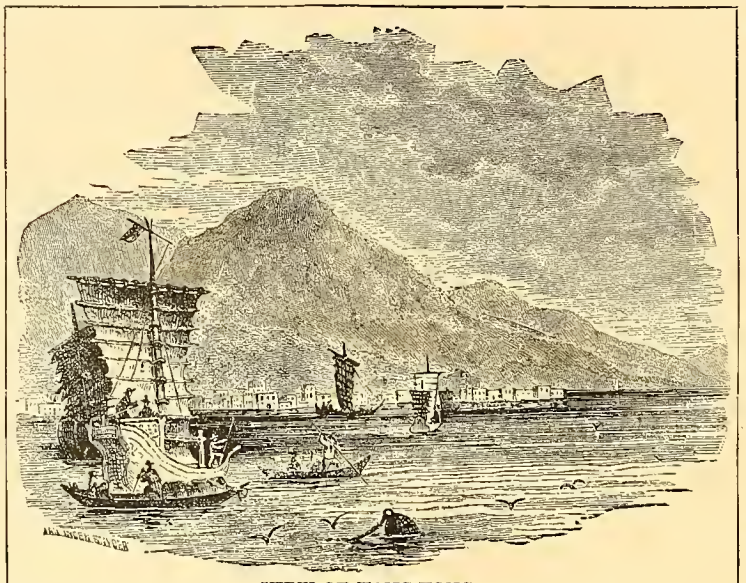
It is a singular coincidence that the succeeding dynasty, the last of the old era of the world and the beginning of the Christian era, was remarkable for the progress of the nation in the arts of peace, and that at the same time that the Roman Empire was at peace with the world, and Jesus was born in Bethlehem, the Emperor Ping-ti (signifying "peace") was enjoying a quiet reign in China.

Owing to the weakness of the last of the Han dynasty, and the quarrels attending the attempts to set up its successor, the empire became divided into three principalities. The divisions were not overcome and the country reunited until nearly four hundred years later, under the strong government of Yang-Kien, or Kautsu. One of the most illustrious dynasties in Chinese history was that of Tang, extending from A. D. 618 to A. D. 905, when, as that learned American sinologue, S. Wells Williams, has well said, "China was probably the most civilized country on earth"—Europe being then "wrapped in the ignorance and degradation of the Middle Ages." Taitsung, the second of this dynasty, established schools, instituted the present system of literary examinations, and made appointment to office conditional first of all upon the rank secured in these scholastic examinations. He extended his empire over all the countries now subject to China, and even beyond these limits.

The Yuen dynasty, that of the Mongol Tartars, was founded by Kublai, grandson of Genghis Khan, the terrible Tartar chief who overran all Asia and Western Europe. It was during Kublai's rule that

Marco Polo visited China, and on his return amazed all Europe by his truthful narrative of the high civilization, wealth and magnificence of "Cathay." The Grand Canal was constructed by Kublai, and under him and his grandson the empire enjoyed great prosperity. Their successors were profligate, weak or tyrannical, and after 88 years of Mongol supremacy the people threw off the Tartar yoke, and the Chinese dynasty of Ming swayed the imperial scepter for 276 years.

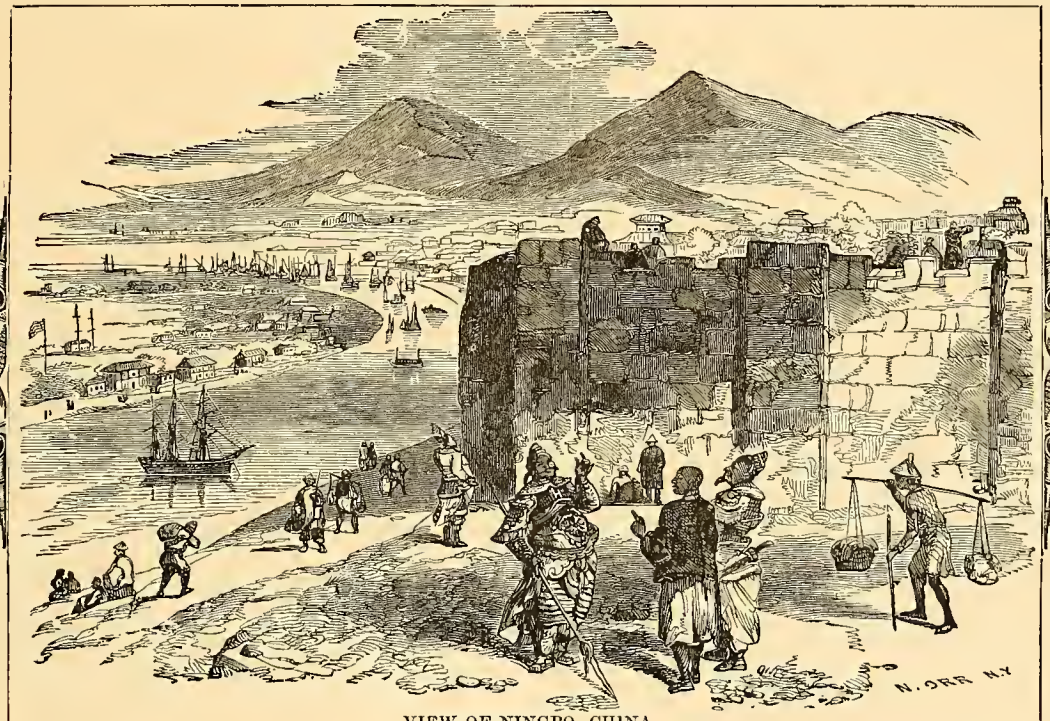
In 1516, during the reign of Kiah-tsing of this dynasty, the Portuguese came to China. Foreign intercourse was soon begun. A Portuguese colony was begun at Ningpo and a profitable trade established, when a series of acts of piracy and cruel outrages (including the kidnapping of Chinese to be sold into slavery), committed by the commanders and owners of Portuguese vessels, led to the expulsion of the foreign traders. Acts of rapacity committed by other foreigners and, later, the quarrels of the Roman Catholic missionaries of different orders, are chiefly responsible for that spirit of suspicion and exclusion which has ever since, to a greater or less degree, marked the Chinese treatment of foreigners.



VIEW OF HONG-KONG.

The Dutch first became known to the Chinese in a naval attack upon the Portuguese settlement at Macao, in 1622. Beaten off, they took forcible possession of the Pescadores islands in the China Sea, to the great annoyance of the Portuguese of the China coast and the Spaniards of the Philippine islands, as well as of the Chinese. After this, in 1624, they seized a portion of the island of Formosa, and held it by force for 28 years. The English appeared off the mouth of the Canton river in May, 1637, and asked permission to trade. Partly by force, they succeeded in disposing of their goods and obtaining cargoes. No further attempt was made until 27 years later, when the East India Company sent a single vessel to Macao, but, through the jealous treatment of the Portuguese, failed to dispose of its cargo. Some desultory commerce was carried on at Formosa and Amoy. At last the English secured trading privileges at Canton in 1684. Their commerce with this country was of small importance, however, until the opening of the present century, when the opium trade set in. This soon assumed frightful proportions. The Chinese strove to exclude it, but it was smuggled into the country under cover of the armaments of the corrupt East India Company and hire of the English flag to Chinese and Portuguese coast-traders. This led to the Anglo-Chinese war, known as the "Opium War," closing with the treaty of Nanking, and the compulsory opening of five Chinese ports in 1842. The first American vessel engaged in the China trade, the *Empress*, set sail from New York in 1784, only six months after the definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain acknowledging American independence. It made a successful voyage. The first American treaty of amity and commerce between the United States and China was negotiated at Macao in 1844. Nearly all the commercial nations of the earth are now in liberal treaty relations with the Chinese, securing to them, among other rights, the privilege of trading at twenty-one ports; of traveling in the country; of enjoying and disseminating their religious doctrines; and, what is still more noteworthy, the jurisdiction of their consuls in all actions for debt or damages, or prosecution for offenses of any kind committed by their subjects on Chinese soil.

In 1872, according to the returns of the Imperial customs, there were 3,661 foreigners in China, of whom 1,771 were natives of Great Britain and Ireland, 1,541 of the United States, 481 of Germany, and 239 of France. More than half of all these, or 2,047, were at Shanghai, and 308 at Canton, leaving 1,306 scattered among the other treaty ports, at Peking, and at the several mission stations. This does not include the foreigners at the Portuguese city of Macao, and at the British island of Hong-Kong.



VIEW OF NINGPO, CHINA.

The population of the entire Chinese empire is still an indeterminate problem, since the statistics of the dependencies are mere estimates. These are as follows: population of Manchuria, 6,000,000, of which the semi-civilized province of Moukden, or Shinking, contains 2,187,286; of Mongolia, 3,000,000; of Tibet, 6,000,000, and of Corea, 8,000,000. The population of China Proper is known with about as great certainty as that of most European and American countries. According to the latest official returns, the Eighteen Provinces contained 360,279,079 inhabitants, or 277 per square mile. There is no good reason to believe that this is an exaggeration. Belgium has over 480 inhabitants per square mile. The most densely inhabited portions of both countries show a much larger average. The rich, alluvial Chinese provinces of Kiangsu, Anhevei, and Chehkiang, in the Great Plain of China, average 850,705, and 671 inhabitants, respectively, per square mile. These are the most densely populated provinces. The Belgian provinces of Brabant, East Flanders, and Hainault average fully as dense a population as this; or, severally, 771, 760, and 679 per square mile. Behm and Wagner estimate the total population of the Chinese Empire, excluding Eastern Turkestan, at 425,000,000, which is in excess of the above figures.

The government of China is practically dual; a democracy within an autocracy. From the ancient patriarchal times there has come down a system of elders, chosen by the people to act as arbitrators in matters of disagreement and preserve the peace. As a rule their administration is eminently mild and just; which cannot always be said of the imperial rule. The imperial government is wholly vested, theoretically, in the Hwang-ti, or emperor. Under the title of Tien-tzi, "Son of Heaven," he is both the spiritual and secular head of the nation, clothed

with the highest legislative and executive authority, without limit or control. But in reality he is restricted and held in by time-honored and sacred customs, which have all the potency of a written constitution. The emperor is the sole high-priest of the empire. He, with his representatives, perform the great religious ceremonies at the Temple of Heaven, the Temple of Agriculture and elsewhere. No ecclesiastical hierarchy is maintained at the public expense; nor is there any priesthood attached to the Confucian or state religion.

The succession since 1644 has not been hereditary, but the emperor names his successor—any member of the imperial family, within certain limits. The administration of the empire is under the supreme direction of the Interior Council Chamber, comprising four members—two Tartar and two Chinese—assisted by two members of the Hanlin, or Great College of Peking, who have to see that nothing is done contrary to the civil and religious laws of the empire laid down in the Ta-tsing-hwei-tien (*i. e.* Collected Regulations of the Great Pure Dynasty, the constitution or fundamental law of the empire), and the sacred writings of Confucius. Under this Council, or Imperial Cabinet, are six boards, each of which is presided over by a Tartar and a Chinese: the Board of Civil Appointments and Administration; the Board of Revenue, regulating all financial affairs; the Board of Rites and Ceremonies; the Board of Military affairs; the Board of Public Works; and the Board of Judiciary—the highest tribunal of criminal jurisdiction. Theoretically independent of the government, and above all these boards, is the Board of Public Censors, of about 40 members, under two presidents, one Tartar and one Chinese, who, by the ancient custom of the empire, have each the privilege of presenting any remonstrance to the sovereign. One censor must be present at the meetings of each of the six boards. This right of remonstrance, like the right of petition in the United States, is generally regarded as sacred and inalienable, and is exercised with a large degree of freedom.

Great effort is made in this constitution to preserve a balance of power between the Chinese and the Tartar elements of China Proper—the standing army, however, being at all times largely Tartar. Every province and city has its military head, usually a Tartar, as well as its chief civil magistrate, a Chinese mandarin. The standing military force of the empire consists of two great divisions—the one composed of Tartars, the other of Chinese and other subject races. The latter is used mainly as a constabulary force, the former is maintained in garrisons and fortifications in all the great cities along the coast and on the frontier. China had nothing worthy the name of a navy until 1877, when the government purchased four admirably constructed English-built iron gun-boats of about 450 tons each. To these they added in 1879 four similar ones, and recently they have constructed and equipped several small revenue cutters at their own navy-yards and arsenals. These yards, docks and arsenals, established with the aid of foreign instructors and mechanics, are now largely operated by Chinese officials and workmen. This navy is intended only for coast defense and enforcement of the customs laws.

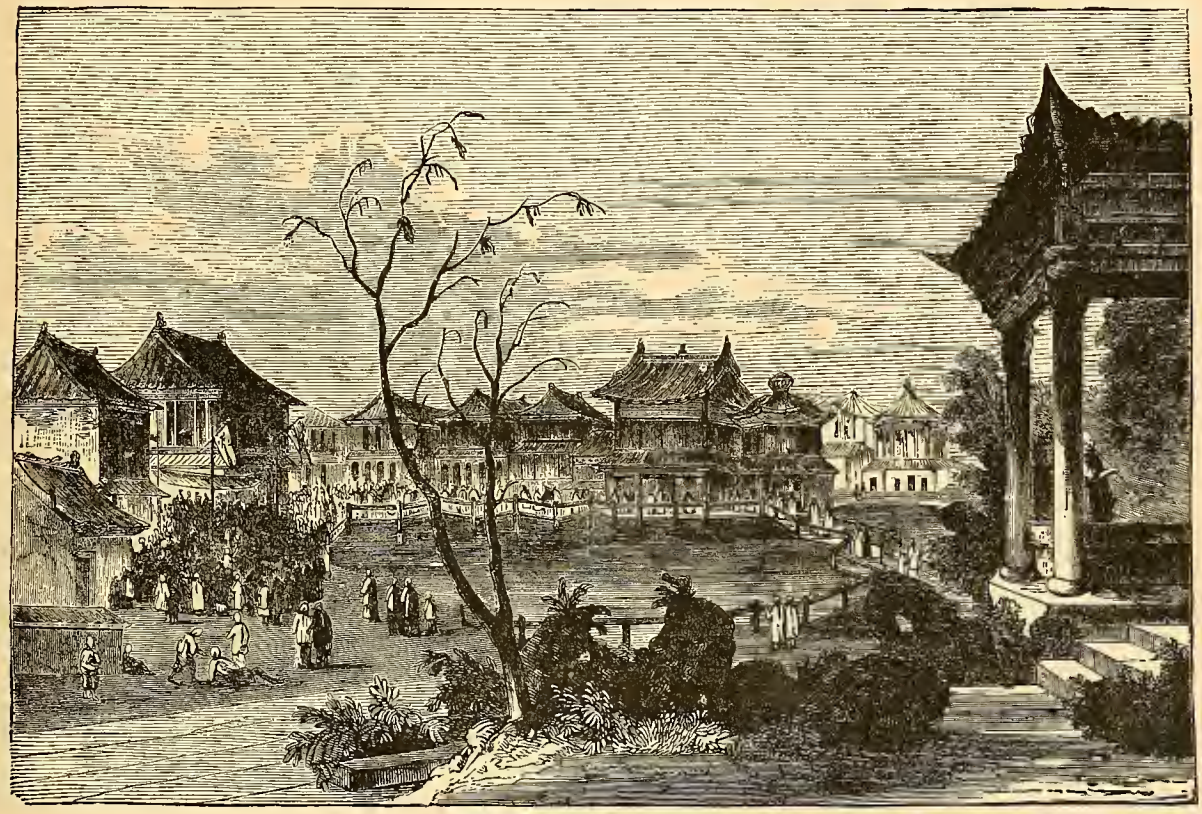
The public revenue of China of late years has been estimated to average $125,000,000. Only the receipts from custom duties are made public. In 1878 these amounted to 12,483,988 haikwan taels, or about $18,725,000. The largest expenditure of the imperial government is for the army—amounting to almost $45,000,000 per annum.

China avoided the dangers of contracting a foreign debt until 1874, when it negotiated a loan of £627,675 at 8 per cent., secured on the customs revenue. In 1878 it negotiated another loan of £1,604,276 at 8 per cent., secured in the same way. The total foreign imports in 1878 at all the twenty-one open ports amounted to £21,241,208, and the exports to £20,151,654. In the ten years ending 1878 the imports increased 18 per cent. and the exports 25 per cent. Of this trade the English get the lion's share, carrying off in 1878, £14,600,000 of the exports, and giving in exchange £6,608,921 of British home produce and the whole of the balance in opium. There is no way of ascertaining the amount of the domestic trade of this populous country, or the volume and worth of the trade carried on with Asia and Europe overland.

Physically, the Chinese of the Great Plain and Southern China are rather smaller than the average European. Their complexion is considerably lighter than the Hindoos, with that slight yellow or sallow tinge peculiar to the Mongolian race. The cheek-bones are prominent, the shape of the face is as generally round as that of the European is oval.

The hair is straight, coarse and black, the beard is thin (whiskers are scarcely ever seen), the eyes are in all cases black, small and almost invariably oblique. The nose is small, and without being flat, is wide and singularly depressed at the lower extremity. The lips are seldom so thin as in the European type. The hands and feet are small and remarkably well-shapen; the motions of the body are light, quick and often graceful. This is a sketch of the typical Chinaman. The mountaineers, the people of the northwest provinces, and the Formosans, Coreans, and Tartar tribes in general average fully as great height and muscularity as the European or Anglo-American. All of these last-named Asiatics are semi-savage, or, at least, much more ignorant, coarse and fierce than the true Chinaman. The latter is peaceable, industrious, temperate in the use of intoxicating drinks, frugal, yet kind and hospitable. The elders are sedate, dignified and polite. The younger people are full of good humor and bubbling over with love of social sports and mirth. Women are secluded, except those of the laboring class, but they have large influence in their homes, where conjugal and filial affection and respect are accounted the highest virtues. Children, as a rule, are treated with tenderness, and often with excessive indulgence.

On the other hand, filial respect and love are manifested more generally than in other nations. The doctrine of filial obedience is fundamental in their social, political and religious systems; the first essential of instruction they receive at home, in school, in society, in and out of office.



TEA GARDENS AT SHANGHAI.

Among the vices most common in China, the opium-smoking, which has developed at an alarming rate since the early part of this century, is one of the most destructive.

As to licentiousness, there is nothing to prove that this people is any more addicted to it than European races. Polygamy is allowable, and is practiced by men of wealth. Concubinage is honorable; concubines and their children are legitimate, and the

law compels the man to provide for them. But the great body of Chinese are monogamists, either from choice or necessity. Infanticide is practiced to some extent, but it is in direct violation of imperial rescripts against it and the popular sentiment, and there is a benevolent society whose special business is to prevent this crime, and care for foundlings.

The Chinese seem to have an unaccountable bent for doing things in a way directly opposite to the style of doing the same in other lands. The point of their magnetic-needle is toward the south; the place of honor for their guests is on the left hand; they wear white as a badge of mourning; their joiners saw inside of the gauge line, instead of just outside of it, as European joiners do; and they draw a plane towards them instead of pushing it. Scores of similar inversions of European customs can be recited. They are, perhaps, more sensible than some other people in abjuring artificial heat in their dwellings as much as possible, supplying its place by increasing the weight and number of their garments, and wearing furs next the body instead of with the hair outward. The unnatural and barbarous practice of compressing the feet of their fashionable women, and insisting on it as an essential mark of high life, was introduced about A. D. 950. It is the most irrational of their fashions; less injurious than such extreme compression of the vital organs as is frequently seen in other countries, but equally indefensible. The shaven head and long queue of the Chinaman are badges of loyalty to the Tartar government. Rogues, convicts and suspects are compelled to lose their queues and wear their hair long, which is the most effective means conceivable to induce an honest Chinaman to hold on to his queue and keep his head shaved.

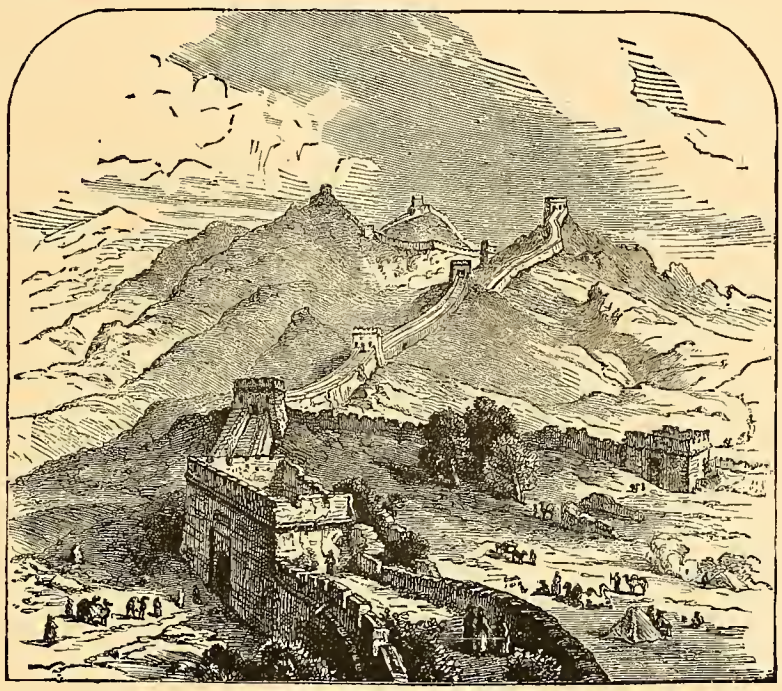
CHINESE LADIES OF RANK.

The food of the Chinese is largely rice, millet, or maize, and vegetables, fish and fowl; which accounts for their living so inexpensively. Their habit of saving everything, of turning everything that is fit for nothing else into manure for the fields, and converting it through agriculture into food or other field products, is worthy of universal imitation. The eating of rats and mice is confined to the poorest classes. None of them seem to crave such food, as the Viennese epicure does his fattened snails or the Frenchman his dish of frogs.

The principal occupations of this people are agriculture, manufactures and trade. Excepting literature, no pursuit ranks so high in the Chinese code as agriculture. The Temple of Agriculture occupies a large inclosure in one corner of the Chinese quarter of Peking, and there, once every spring, the emperor, accompanied by all his ministers, goes to invoke the blessing of Heaven on the toils of the husbandman, while he plows a furrow in the sacred field, as an example to all his people. Artificial irrigation and fertilization are employed to a remarkable degree, and the soil is made to produce from two to three crops a year, according to climate, from age to age, without impoverishment.

There was a time when the inventive genius of the Chinese appears to have been as strikingly active as it is now sluggish. The use of the magnetic needle seems to have been discovered as early as in the reign of Hwang-ti, fully 2,650 years before the opening of our era, although it was not applied to navigation until very much later. Silk spinning and weaving is referred to a still earlier period. Costly furniture, richly embroidered robes, felts, mattings, ornaments of silver, gold, copper and brass, and the use of precious stones, were common in the older dynasties, contemporary with the best

periods of Egyptian and Assyrian magnificence. Porcelain was made long before the Christian era. The origin of paper, the art of printing, gunpowder, and numerous other inventions, are traced back to China at dates varying from 2000 to 9000 years ago. For reasons not well understood, the spirit of invention seems to have sunk into lethargy during the last few centuries, and the Chinese busy themselves in repeating the manufactures of their fathers, even the patterns of their costumes having remained unaltered for generations.



THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA.

The great quantities of their industrial productions are beyond any known means of estimate; besides supplying the home wants of their teeming millions, they send their tea, silk, porcelain, mattings, drugs, and not less than one hundred other agricultural or manufactured articles, to all parts of the world, either in fleets of Chinese junks and foreign vessels, or by caravans overland to various parts of Asia and into Europe.

Chinese architecture is not of a high order. Their dwellings, for the most part, are of burnt or sun-dried brick and of stone, seldom more than two stories in height. Only the very poorest classes live in huts of bamboo, or mud and straw. Some of their temples, pagodas, palaces, and imperial tombs are works of considerable architectural grandeur, garnished without and within with highly colored porcelains, enameled or glazed bricks, and porcelain figures, bas-reliefs and intaglios of human figures, animals, birds, flowers, fruits, etc. Their sculpturing is of little merit, being rather grotesque than natural or of graceful and beautiful designs, and polished execution. Their carving, especially in ivory, is often marvelously elaborate and superb, only lacking a few of the characteristics of the most refined art. Some of their India-ink drawings (always excepting the perspective) and their paintings in water-colors of birds, fishes, insects, fruits, flowers, costumes, and other distinct objects, are exquisite. The brilliancy of their water-colors is unsurpassed, and European and American artists confess that in some shades of color they have not yet learned to equal them. The use of oil, in the painting of pictures, the Chinese have never acquired to any commendable degree; and very few of them have manifested any considerable effort to learn it. Their paintings on porcelains and their fine gilding in lacquer are justly admired the world over,—although these have stiff, hard, realistic features which separate them from superlative art. Feats of civil engineering have been performed by the Chinese which, considering the age in which they were wrought, were truly marvelous. The Great Wall already referred to deserves further attention. Starting at the sea, winding like a huge serpent along the crests of mountain chains, spanning intervening chasms on enormous arches, it ends at last far out in the Gobi desert, thirteen hundred miles from its point of beginning. It is constructed of huge bricks and stone facings, of from four to ten feet thickness, with fillings of concrete or indurated clay. For most of the immense distance above

given it is thirty feet high, twenty-five feet broad at its base, fifteen feet at its summit, paved on top with brick or flag-stones, protected with crenelated battlements, and guarded every few hundred yards with fortified towers rising forty feet or more above the ground.

The Grand Canal is still unequaled in length by any other single canal in the world. Its influence in developing China is a study for statesmen of all lands. This is but one of the canals of this country. The great plains of the north and the broad, alluvial delta of the Canton river are ramified in all directions with canals. In no other country, not even excepting Holland, is water so much relied on for transportation. Their means of land carriage are still exceedingly primitive, men being the chief burden-bearers in the most thickly populated provinces. Beasts of burden are more numerous in the northern and western provinces. Wheeled vehicles are few. The wheelbarrow is used to a considerable extent in some parts of the country—and along the Grand Canal and in other parts of the Great Plain region they are partly propelled by wind when the direction favors. Few roads are constructed for two-wheeled vehicles, whereas paved roads for footmen are measured by hundreds of thousands of miles. Railroads could be constructed with ease in the greater part of the most fruitful regions of China, but the opposition of the people and of the government, for various reasons, is still unsubdued, although there are indications of late of a better feeling. A telegraph line has been opened between Shanghai and Peking, after long opposition, and it is hoped it will soon lead the way to other modern improvements in communication. The government postal system has been restricted, until lately, to government dispatches, and private correspondence has been conducted by private expresses. Some of the bridges of China, built of marble, granite and other kinds of stone, are fine specimens of engineering skill and artistic taste. There are marble bridges high enough for large junks, with lowered masts, to pass under. The stone bridges of China, some of them several hundred feet long, are numbered by hundreds—one might say thousands. There are places where roadways have been quarried out of the sides of precipices in the cañons of their great rivers, and through mountain passes, on a scale which commands admiration for the wisdom of their rulers and great engineers.

The principal roots of the national existence are its form of local government, hitherto referred to, (the government of towns and city wards by elective elders), and its educational system. The imperial government for nearly fifteen hundred years has intensified the influence of the latter by basing its civil service upon it, making the attainment of the highest literary degrees a condition precedent to the honors and emoluments of office. There is no hereditary civil office but that of emperor, and even that, as previously explained, does not follow the law of primogeniture. All other offices are held up before the sons of the rich and the poor, the sons of the ministers of state and those of the humblest peasants and mechanics, as prizes to be contested for, on equal terms, first of all in the schools, which offer them the only portal of admission. Subsequent promotions depend, except when personal favoritism or corruption creeps in, both on scholarship and successful administration. Of course this is a powerful stimulus to the people to educate their children. The government provides a system of examinations, from that of the primary schools up through all the grades to that which admits the gray-haired doctor of philosophy to the Hanlin University, "the college of forty," from which the emperor selects his highest civil ministers. The people and their wealthy benefactors provide the schools. The founding of elementary schools and academies is one of the most common, as it is one of the most gratefully appreciated forms of Chinese benevolence. Very generally the people tithe themselves to maintain schools, or support them by voluntary subscriptions. Men of wealth employ private tutors. But wherever and howsoever educated, all the pupils must enter the examinations through the one door, and pass the same ordeal. First, there is an examination annually in each district, presided over by the district magistrate assisted by examiners selected from among the elders and the first literati of the district. This examination contains certain specified elementary work in writing, reading, and the memorizing of precepts inculcating respect and obedience to parents and magistrates, simple lessons in social virtue, the great importance of education, a very limited elementary knowledge of numbers, geography and history, the "five elements," the four seasons, the six principal kinds of grain, the six domestic animals, etc. Besides these elements, the

children are required to memorize pages on pages of the classics, without being expected to comprehend their meaning until they have advanced years farther in their studies. Those who pass this village examination have their names posted at the entrance of the magistrate's office, and are said to have earned "the village name." These may enter, whenever they choose to present themselves, the annual county or district examination, covering a much more arduous field of study. If they pass this ordeal they are said to have earned "the county name." Not more than one in a hundred of those who enter the district examinations ever attains to this distinction. None but such as have, however, are permitted to enter the next examination, which is for the first literary degree, carrying the title of "Beautiful Ability." This entitles the holder to wear "the gilt button," "the white robe" and other insignia of scholarly rank. The curriculum of study up to this point embraces a thorough memorizing of the classical books of China (the writings of Confucius and his commentators), and a good degree of understanding of the most practical parts of them—including Chinese history, geography, social science and political government. From these graduates the army of teachers, scribes, lawyers, and physicians is continually recruited; but before the citizen can hope to hold any public office above that of constable, he must enter the triennial examinations, held at each of the provincial capitals, and win the second literary title—that of "Advanced Man." Preparation for this contest carries him farther and farther into the depths of the Confucian philosophy. It involves great labor, embracing the mastery of the most abstruse doctrines of Confucian metaphysics, a good knowledge of the theory and code of the Chinese government, and great readiness in the use of the language. The natural sciences, which have gradually wrought their way into the higher schools of Europe and America, and which have done so much to develop these countries within the past one hundred years, are still (with the exception of astronomy) excluded from the regular curriculum of Chinese study, although beginning to receive attention in some of the special schools established under government auspices at Peking, and the great centers of foreign trade, Shanghai, Fuchow, Canton, Tien-tsin, and other points.

CHINESE IMAGE OF BUDDHA.

While comparatively few from the masses of the Chinese people attain to even the first literary rank, it may be truthfully said that the multitudes are able to read and write in a rudimentary way, if nothing better. There are very few of the common people—of the males—who cannot read the almanac, keep a written memorandum of accounts, and enjoy the popular romance, written for this class of readers in the limited vocabulary of common speech, and found scattered through the huts of the laboring classes and the boats of the river people. The folk-lore of China is voluminous, and their romances of love and war are almost innumerable. A large part of this stuff is the veriest trash, but in the worthless mass there is a little good wheat which manifests itself in various ways.

The religion of the Chinese is a strangely confused medley of Confucianism, Taouism, and Buddhism engrafted on the ancient monotheism, which has come down to them from the earliest ages. They have a vague notion of one "Supreme Ruler," or "Shang-te," of whom Confucius taught that it is

impossible for man to know anything clearly. As the Creator and Supreme Ruler of all things animate and inanimate, he is to be regarded with reverence. He has established the relations of man to man, and man to the material world; and to the study of these relations and the duties growing out of them Confucius addressed himself, using all the light that had come down to his time from preceding sages. Had he not lent his authority to some of the ancient mysticisms, and hallowed many of the old-time superstitions, had he not inculcated such extreme reverence for the past, and had not his followers, re-inforced by the government educational system, ordained that from generation to generation the whole mind of the ruling class of China should be spent in looking back to the thoughts and practices of the past and patterning after them, it would be difficult to commend the Confucian philosophy too highly. The worship of Shang-te, the Supreme Ruler, as observed by the emperor at the Altar of Heaven, at Peking, is the state religion of China. There at stated periods he stands, as the sole priest and father of his people, under the open sky, with not an idol anywhere in the vast temple enclosure, and burns incense and offers sacrifice to "Him who rules in the zenith and in the four quarters of heaven;" asks forgiveness for the transgressions of rulers and people; and invokes blessings on the nation. Confucius has his temple in every city and considerable town, and honors almost divine are paid to him by order of the government; which exerts its power to increase the popular reverence for his teachings. Taouism dates back to the sage, Leaoutze, a contemporary of Confucius. It was originally a non-idolatrous rationalism and spiritology, which sought to exalt men above their fleshly lusts and into a state of sagely wisdom by the contemplations of reason, very much as Buddhism, which was introduced from India into China about 600 years later, in A. D. 65, sought to prepare man by meditation, self-denial, prayers and deeds of humanity for absorption into the essence of the divine Buddha. Both of these have degenerated into systems of idolatry, superstition, and monkish indolence, mendicancy and fraud. Only a few of the most highly educated Confucianists, and about 100,000 Christian converts, can be regarded as above subjection to these corrupting forms of religion.

Slowly, but surely, the ferment of European civilization is working, as may be inferred from some things already said, and many other indications that might be noticed if there were space. The operation of the Chinese foreign customs service, modeled after the English service, has worked a great reform in the collection of the revenue, and has paved the way for other innovations. The establishment of arsenals and navy-yards; the erection of light-houses; the re-organization of a portion of the army, which has been armed and drilled by American and European tacticians; the education of a large number of Chinese youth in the schools of Europe and America; the establishment of schools of foreign learning, at Peking and elsewhere; the adoption of foreign-built vessels for a large part of their river and coast trade; the introduction of clocks, sewing-machines, and numerous other western inventions; the progress of missions directed against their superstitions; the growing use of the public press; the use of the marine telegraph cable, and the recent establishment of a line of telegraph of several hundred miles in length,—all denote that the progress of the age cannot be stayed, even by Chinese conservatism.

According to the census of 1880, there are 105,465 Chinese in the United States. They are found in every state and territory of the Union, North Carolina and Vermont alone excepted. At this writing a bill is pending before Congress to prohibit during the next twenty years immigration from China. The Chinese do not come to this country to become Americans, but to remain a few years, and then return to their native land and families. There is to be no disturbance of the Chinese now within the borders of the United States.

MINOR ASIA AND AFRICA.

CHAPTER LXXI.

ASIA IN GENERAL, MINOR PORTIONS IN DETAIL—ANAM—SIAM—BURMAH—BOKHARA—EAST TURKESTAN—AFGHANISTAN—BELOOCHISTAN—ARABIA—AFRICA IN GENERAL AND IN DETAIL—MADAGASCAR—ALGERIA—MOROCCO—TUNIS—TRIPOLI—CENTRAL AFRICA AND SIBERIA—SOUTH AFRICA—THE DUTCH AND THE ENGLISH—ZULULAND AND THE LAST OF THE BONAPARTES—ST. HELENA—BIRTH-PLACES OF THE GREAT RELIGIONS OF THE WORLD.

WE are about to leave the Old World for the New, but before doing so it is purposed to gather into one sheaf the ungarnered wheat of the two oldest continents.

Of all the continents Asia is the largest. According to Behm and Wagner its area, inclusive of Islands, is 16,924,000 square miles. The population is 794,000,000. The appended table presents the details on this point, the names italicized being those of countries already considered.

Names.	Area in Sq. Mi.	Pop.	Names.	Area in Sq. Mi.	Pop.
Asiatic Russia	6,250,000	12,000,000	Bokhara	76,000	2,500,000
Chinese Em.	4,740,000	425,000,000	E. Turkestan	596,000	580,000
Japan	150,000	35,000,000	Afghanistan	250,000	4,000,000
Anam, Siam, Burmah	752,000	21,000,000	Beloochistan	107,000	2,000,000
			Persia	686,000	5,000,000
			Arabia	1,020,000	4,000,000
British India	1,580,000	240,000,000	*Turkey*	673,000	16,500,000

The Empire of Anam is also known as Cochin-China. It was created about eighty years ago. It is south of China. The government is thoroughly despotic. The emperor rules through mandarin agents. The religion is Buddhism, with a sprinkling of Confucianism among the higher classes. The capital is Hue, at the mouth of the river of the same name. The export is chiefly silk. In the sixteenth century Roman Catholic missions were established in the country which have continued to flourish in spite of persecution. The present Christian population of the empire is about half a million. The Anamese language is very similar to the Chinese, and the literature is still more closely allied to that of China.

No other part of Minor Asia is so important as Siam, "the kingdom of the free," as the term implies. The freedom referred to is disbelief in Brahmanism. It occupies the middle portion of the Indo-Chinese peninsula. The people are ardent Buddhists. The capital is Bangkok, the "Venice of the East." The architecture of Siam is suggestive of Egypt. "Their structures," says Leonowens, "are solid and endurable. The temples are beautifully situated amid spacious avenues of trees, and enclosed by gardens, while their tapering, pyramidal roofs, sculptured facades and lofty *prochaidi* (spires all painted, gilded and glazed) are made vocal with tiny air-bells at all hours of the night and day, and resplendent beyond description in the sunlight." Of all the nations living almost entirely apart from the outside world, Siam is the only one to have a music

which is truly musical, judged from the European or American standard. The *tang-wong* and *takay* are instruments closely resembling the piano. The art of painting has been carried to some degree of merit, but architecture is the art most perfected. *Watt Phra Kean*, or temple of the Emerald God, is a magnificent structure, and there are many temples and palaces of hardly less grandeur. The religion of the country is Buddhism. The people are exceptionally moral and observant of the five commandments of Buddha: thou shalt not kill, steal, commit adultery, lie, or get drunk—and the positive virtues insisted upon are, reverence for parents, care for children, obedience, gratitude, moderation, fortitude, patience and resignation. The Siamese literature, which is quite full, is largely religious in tone. The people love poetry. The sacred books are numerous and of such a high character that a Christian missionary writes: "It is difficult to see how the human understanding unaided by revelation could soar so high, and, as it were, touch the very throne of God."

The government of Siam is a duarchy, there being two kings; but the second king is hardly more than a *vice* or *lieutenant*. About his court is the Council of Twelve, or Cabinet, and when the chief king dies that body may defeat the execution of his will as to his successor on the throne. This veto power is not the only restriction upon royal authority. There are laws, written and unwritten, to which he must conform, and which render the government in effect a constitutional monarchy. When General Grant visited the Siamese court in 1878, he found it a seat of learning and justice beyond all anticipation. From 1851 to the present time, the throne has been occupied by a patriot and statesman. First, Maha Mongkut, crowned in 1851, a model gentleman and deep student. Astronomy was his favorite study. His death occurred in 1868, and the same night the Council, Senabawdee, confirmed his eldest son, Somdetch Chowfa Chullalon Korn, as king, and the younger son, Prince George Washington, second king. The latter king had a family of 81 children. Polygamy prevails, and the wealth, social importance and rank of a man determines the number of his wives. But in the royal household there can be only two wives whose sons are eligible to the throne. Slavery existed in Siam until 1872, when by royal edict the institution was abolished, or rather, its abolition began then, for the process was gradual. A system of compensation to masters was adopted which prevented any serious dissatisfaction.

Siam is sometimes called "The Land of the White Elephant." Any white animal or bird is held to be almost sacred, as being animated by the pure soul in its metempsychosis. A white elephant is supposed to be animated by a deceased king of exceptional whiteness of character. The palatial stable of the white elephant is guarded from the evil spirits by a white monkey. The same veneration prevails in Burmah for the white elephant, or "august and glorious mother-descendant of kings and heroes."

Burmah is between latitudes 19° and 27° north, and forms a part of what is sometimes called Farther India. The soil is productive and the climate agreeable. The mineral wealth of the country is great and varied, including gold, silver, copper, antimony, lead, tin, iron, coal and precious stones, such as rubies and sapphires. Rice, corn, cotton, tobacco, indigo and millet are the chief products of the country. Elephants, tigers, the rhinoceros and the buffalo are found there, the first and the last being domesticated. The people are short, robust and swarthy members of the Mongolian race. Buddhism is the prevailing religion. The ruler of Burmah is absolute in his authority, and not even the most horrible abuse of power by the sovereign seems to shake the loyalty of his subjects.

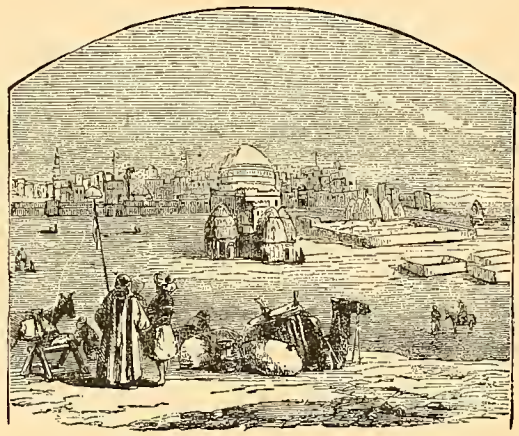
Bokhara is the name of both a city and a country, the former being the capital of the latter, and the most important commercial city of Central Asia. It has long been famous as a seat of Mohammedan learning. It contains a hundred colleges and has about 10,000 students in attendance. The fierce Tartar, Ghengis Khan, desolated the city in 1230. It was soon restored, so far as possible. The population is about 100,000. The country of which it is the capital is sometimes called Great Bucharis. With the exception of a little gold in the sands of the Oxus or Amoo river, Bokhara is destitute of minerals. It is also deficient in timber. The ancient Bactria nearly corresponds to this country. The Russians exercise semi-protectoral jurisdiction over Bokhara. The religion of Islam prevails, and Christianity has no foothold whatever, except as the Russians have given the Greek church a little advancement. No part of the world is more completely isolated than Bokhara.

Turkestan (land of the Turk) is estimated to have an area of 1,576,402 square miles. The western portion is now a part of Russia. It is the home of the ancient Scythians. East Turkestan is naturally an arid land. Agriculture requires irrigation. With the aid of mountain torrents tamed and rendered supplemental to the plow, the people manage to raise fair crops, generally. The system of government is exceedingly crude and despotic, the policy being to levy all the tax that the productions of the country would possibly bear. The religion of the inhabitants is Mohammedanism, with a few scattered traces of Buddhism, which prevailed until the eighth century. The Chinese long claimed sovereignty over the country. They were finally expelled from Kashgar, the capital, in 1865, by Yakoob Bey, who has since attracted some general attention as a brave mountain warrior whose exploits are important from their supposed bearing upon the eastern rivalries of Russia and England. Formerly the commerce of the country was conducted by way of China, but now the trade with Russia is very considerable.

Afghanistan, or land of the Afghans, is known in Persia as *Wilijet*, "the mother country." It is the bridge between India and Western Asia. It is a very mountainous region. The Afghans are divided into many tribes, each independent of the rest, until recently. It was the middle of the eighteenth century when they became an organized people. The British have repeatedly tried to conquer the country, but the mountains serve as natural fortresses for the natives, and the English were obliged to be content with the establishment of a non-Russian nationality. It is now quite well conceded at London and St. Petersburg that the country shall remain free. The religion of Islam prevails.

Beloochistan is a part of the same wild and inhospitable region as Afghanistan and Turkestan, inhabited sparcely by wandering shepherds, subject in a vague way to a despotic khan whose seat of empire is Kelat, which was stormed and taken by the English in 1839. In the sack the khan of the period was slain. Industry is almost unknown. The people are worshipers of Allah and his prophet Mohammed. In the more favored valleys a little rice, tobacco, cotton, barley and indigo are produced.

Arabia, the land of the Prophet, is a peninsula surrounded by water on all sides except the north, where it borders on Turkey. It is a very uninviting country, hot, dry and unproductive. By the aid of irrigation the people manage to coax from the soil meager harvests of coffee, cotton, indigo, tobacco, barley, sugar, and many aromatic plants. There is really no national government. The Arabs being wandering tribes, each sheik, or patriarch, is a petty tyrant. A few of the people dwell in villages and cultivate the soil, but for the most part they are Bedouins, or predatory and vagabondish tribes. Mecca is the chief city, owing its prominence to the fact that it was the birthplace of Mohammed. The other cities of Arabia are Medina, Loheia, Mocha,



MOCHA.

Aden, Muscat, Yemba, and Rostok. Once the Arab caravans were a very important feature in international transportation, but they have dwindled into utter insignificance now, and Arabia is interesting only from its suggestions of antiquity. Owing to its desolation and sand, the conquerors of the past shunned it, and the Arabs were allowed to develop in their own weird way, undistributed by the rise and fall of empires. It can boast a literature which was rich in poetry, at least, before the religious insanity and terrible earnestness of Mohammed had given birth to the Saracen Empire, which was rather an outgrowth from than a development of Arabia. The principal exports of the country are dates, coffee, gum arabic, myrrh, aloes, pearls, balsams and other drugs.

The least important of all the continents, Africa, was the first to attract our attention, including as it does that once splendid country, Egypt. The name itself was not known until after the Romans had

come into collision with the Carthaginians. The ancient designation was *Libya*. Africa extends about 4,500 miles from north to south, and contains an area of 11,600,000 square miles. Its population is a matter of wild conjecture, not far, perhaps, from 200,000,000.

In these estimates Madagascar is included. That is the chief island in the near vicinity of the continent. It has an area of 228,500 square miles, and a population of 5,000,000. Some faint suggestions of civilization are found there, but that is about all. Very considerable effort has been made to introduce Christianity, and not without some success, especially among the higher classes. The chief city of the island is Tananarivo, in the interior. It has a population of 25,000, and carries on a thriving business in gold and silver manufactories, and in rings. The language, Malagasy, has been reduced to writing by European missionaries. In the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the island was the resort of pirates who roved the sea in quest of ships laden with the treasures of Indian commerce.

A MOHAMMEDAN MOSQUE.

We return now to the continent of Africa. In remote antiquity none of the continents could compare with Africa in the scale of importance. Egypt, as we have seen, was the fountain-head of that mighty stream of civilization which has fertilized the world, and even Ethiopia was not to be despised. Carthage, the formidable rival of old Rome, and for a long time the queen city of commerce, was located on the African side of the Mediterranean sea. The Saracen Empire was largely African, and the Moors, the noblest race of the medieval age, belonged in part to that continent. But since their day Africa has been little better than a cipher, her unfortunate sons the drudges of white masters, and the continent itself contributing very little to the civilization of mankind. It belongs to the past, and perhaps to the future, but in only a very subordinate way to the vital present. Upon its monumental ruins the mind's eye reads the inscription, "Ichabod"—the glory has departed.

A very lively interest is felt in the geography of Africa, and numerous efforts of great enterprise have been made during the last decade to ascertain what are the physical facts in regard to that continent. A recent writer who conceals his name remarks: "Africa is no longer the *terra incognita* that it was in the days when the adults of this generation thumbed their school geographies. Then the vast interior of that mysterious continent was marked as 'desert' or 'uninhabited,' but now we know that numerous oases dot the sandy wastes, and that the supposed 'uninhabited regions' teem with millions of human beings. To the indefatigable labors and indomitable courage of such men as Livingstone, Cameron, Stanley, Grant, Burton, Speke, Pinto, and other explorers; to the zeal of the missionaries, and to the ever-pushing spirit of barter, is the world indebted for its present store of knowledge of the Dark Continent. Still, Africa is, in its great interior, comparatively unknown. There are yet vast regions of that continent where the foot of the white man has never trodden, and, on this account, is that country a present favored field of exploration and travel. There are now expeditions engaged in exploring Africa under the direction of societies in Germany, Russia, France, England, Italy, Spain, and other States."

In northern Africa there are four countries, each

possessing a very considerable civilization. Decay, but not death, is stamped upon them all. They are, to name them in the order of their importance, Egypt, Algeria, Morocco, Tunis and Tripoli. They all skirt along the Mediterranean on one side and the Sahara on the other. One of them, Morocco, is washed by the Atlantic also. They are strongly, almost wholly, Mohammedan in faith. The exceptions are mainly Jews. Of the once-flourishing Christian churches which may almost be said to have covered that vast region in the early period of the church, hardly a vestige remains. Islam swept them all away, and is itself secure against dislodgment, apparently. From Cairo to Fez, the Prophet and the Koran have absolute sway, and their influence is silently extending southward. In the opinion of some eminent authorities Mohammedanism is sure to conquer Africa, not as in its infancy, by the sword, but by the natural affinity between itself and the colored race upon its native sand. In so doing it is displacing most revolting forms and phases of idolatry, and its progress may be viewed with satisfaction.

We have no occasion here to pause over Egypt.

A STREET IN ALGIERS.

Algeria, the most considerable colonial possession of France, swarmed in the early part of this century with pirates, as did all that coast. To the United States is the world principally indebted for the suppression of Algerian piracy. The French maintain there an army of 60,000.

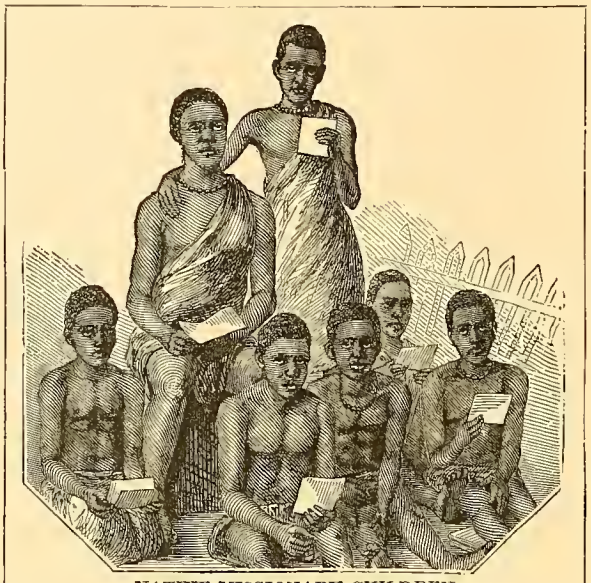
Morocco has a population about the same as Algeria. It is independent, ruled by a sultan known to his own subjects as "Absolute Ruler of True Believers." The dynasty boasts descent from Mohammed's great son-in-law, Ali. Fez, its capital, is a gloomy town of about 100,000 inhabitants, having the air of being wholly subservient to the sultan and his numerous harem. In the days of Moorish glory, and long into its decline, Fez was a splendid city, but of its splendor there remain only mosques.

Tunis has recently acquired special prominence. As we write, France is trying to annex it, in effect, to Algeria, and Tripoli is in danger of the same fate. The Bey of Tunis is under treaty obligations to furnish the Ottoman Empire a certain number of troops in time of war.

Tripoli, the easternmost part of what was once the Barbary States, is small in population and somewhat vague in area. It is little better than a desert, with a few oases. The country is under the rule of an absolute pasha.

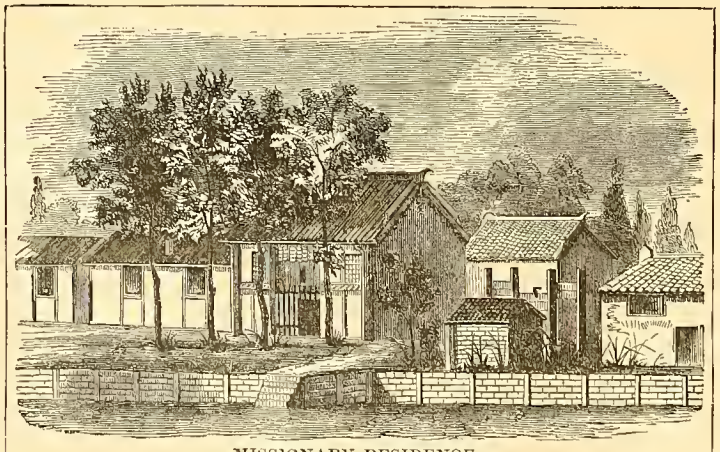
In passing from northern to southern Africa, on either side extends the most extensive desert on the globe, the Sahara. It consists of rocky plateaus and mountains separated by immense tracts of barren gravel. South of the Sahara, on the Atlantic coast, is Senegambia, noted only for its exportation of slaves before the traffic was abolished. Just below it is the small and kindred country of Sierra Leone. Inland, and extending indefinitely, is Soudan, a somewhat fertile belt, having for its principal cities, Kano, Kuka, Timbuctoo and Sokoto. The coast from the south line of Liberia southward some twenty degrees below the equator is called Upper and Lower Guinea. Still farther south lies the land of the Hottentots, whose pitiable degradation early enlisted missionary effort. On the eastern coast stretches the same domain of savagery, between the Gulf of Aden and Port Natal, the names Zululand, Mozambique, Sofala, Zanguebar and Soumati standing for parts of the same general country stretching through thirty degrees of latitude and contributing hardly anything except ivory and ostrich feathers to the world. The heat of the climate, except in Zululand and Sofala, forbids any considerable civilization. The one spot at all civilized and occidental in all that vast reach of continent is Liberia, just north of the equator. Moravia is its capital. That republic was founded in 1820 by the American Colonization Society, which hoped that it would form the nucleus of a general exodus of negroes from this country. But less than twenty thousand American Africans are to be found there. The colored man,

even in the days of slavery, had no longings for the Canaan of his ancestors. The constitution of Liberia was modeled after that of the United States, only white men cannot vote. There are schools and churches fairly well supported, and the people are prosperous in their small way.



NATIVE MISSIONARY CHILDREN.

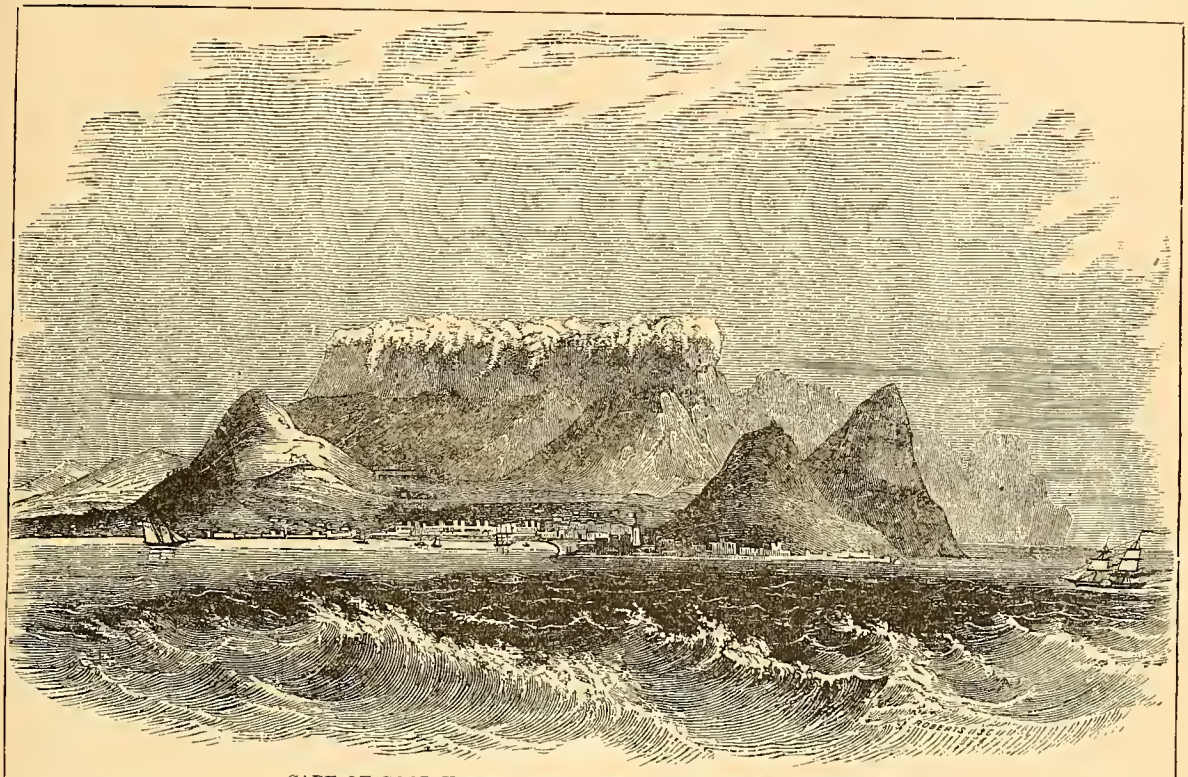
The extreme southern point of Africa, Cape of Good Hope, is on about the 35th degree of latitude, and the climate is delightful, resembling that at Santiago and upon the pampas of the Argentine Republic. In that remote region are to be found very considerable settlements of Europeans, Dutch and English. The former went there first, but having no strong home government to protect them, fell into the hands of the English. These Dutch are called Boers. They are an easy-going people, unambitious, luxuriating in exemption from the exacting tasks of civilization without being barbarians. They are truly Arcadian. They love liberty, are virtuous, and as industrious as their circumstancesrequire. The English find it no child's play to suppress their rebellion. This cluster of European settlements in South Africa consists of Cape Colony, Natal, Orange River Free State, and Transvaal. Cape Colony was originally founded by Van Riebeck in 1652, and seemed as promising as English settlements in America. It fell into English hands in 1796. The area of this colony is 348,000 square miles and the population 1,500,000, and of these only about 240,000 are of European descent. Wool is the chief export. Natal, formerly a part of the Cape settlement, has a European population of 25,000, and, like the Cape of Good Hope colony, has no increase from without, and is wholly given to sheep-raising. Orange River Free States is a territory west of Natal, occupied by some 40,000 Dutch settlers who would not remain in Natal after the English had taken possession. Transvaal is so named because it is located beyond the river Vaal which divides it from Orange. It was in the valley of this river that diamonds began to be found in such rich abundance in 1870. It was to secure these precious stones that the English organized an independent colony across the Vaal. It is thought that no country is richer in mineral resources than this part of Africa, but only the diamonds and the gold have been mined.



MISSIONARY RESIDENCE.

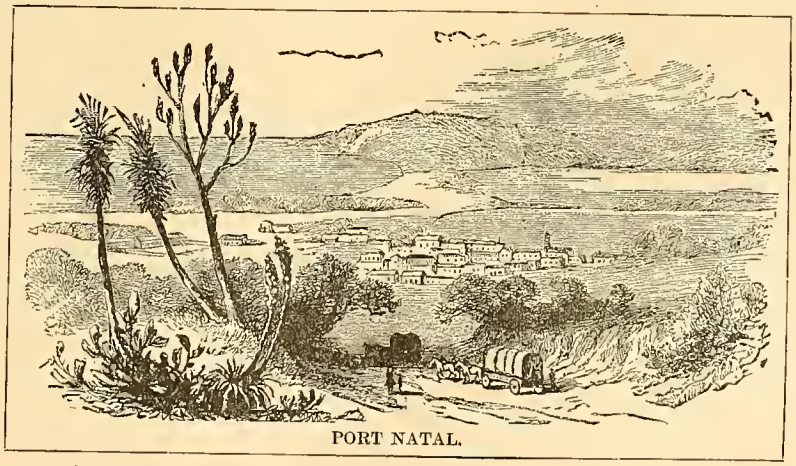
Just north of Natal is Zululand. The natives are fierce warriors, savages of the most dangerous if not the lowest type. They are passionately fond of war and the chase. They hate Europeans because the tendency of civilization is to lessen game. They have given the English a great deal of trouble, fighting and fleeing as the emergency might

require. At last, however, after a great deal of expense and loss of life, these savages have been so far



CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, CAPE TOWN, AND TABLE MOUNTAINS.

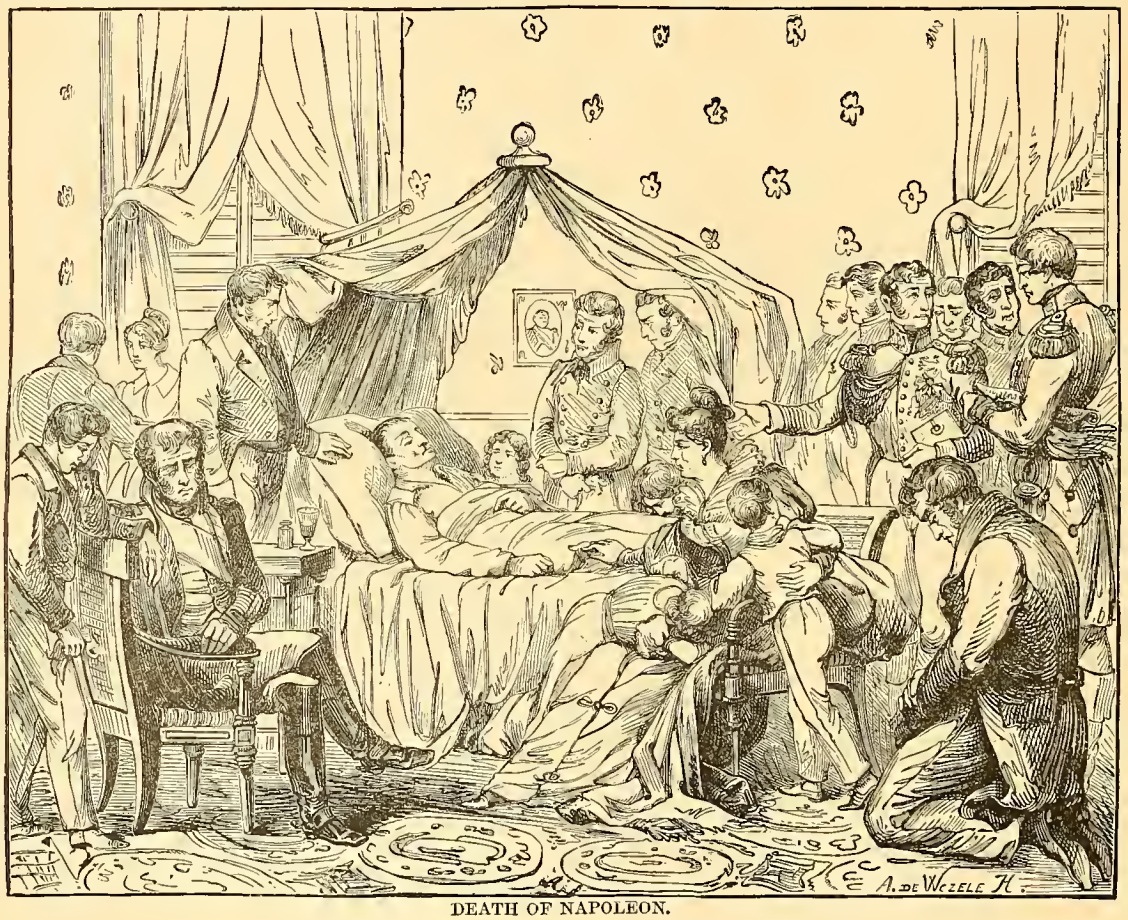
subdued as to give no serious trouble to the natives. In their subjugation occurred the highly sensational death of a young man who may well be called the last of the Bonapartes, the Prince Imperial, son of Louis Napoleon and Eugenie. He was a very worthy youth, and in the hope of winning some military renown, he went to that distant land an officer in the British army. Ambushed and slain, his melancholy fate excited the sympathy of the civilized world for his unhappy mother, while, in an impersonal point of view, it was regarded as an additional guarantee of republicanism in France. There is no longer any danger from the Bonapartists. Had the son of the great emperor, and the grand nephew of the still greater emperor, returned with an honorable military record, he would have been a standing menace to self-government in republican France. It was inexpressibly melancholy for such a brilliant childhood to fall a victim to Zulu barbarity, but it may justly be said that all



PORT NATAL.

unconsciously those Kaffirs immolated him upon the altar of French liberty.

The island of St. Helena is accounted as an African island, although it is no less than 1,400 miles east of the mainland. It contains only 47 square miles. The nearest land is the Isle of Ascension, and that is 800 miles distant. This solitary and rocky speck in the Atlantic Ocean was rendered famous by the fact that Napoleon Bonaparte spent the last years of his life there, the great international prisoner. The otherwise unimportant island has the pre-eminence of being the most august jail the world ever knew, the cage in which the lion of the nineteenth century breathed his last.



DEATH OF NAPOLEON.

In this chapter the less important portions of two continents have engaged attention, and from the standpoint of the actual both are of trivial importance. But it is a remarkable fact, that both of the really great continents of to-day, Europe and America, borrowed their religion from Asia, and that in the birth-places of the two religions which are supreme in the world, neither has now any foothold. Dr. Hurst divides the world, religiously, thus: Christianity, 418,000,000,000; Buddhism, 400,000,000; Mohammedanism, 215,000,000; Brahmanism, 175,000,000; Judaism, 7,000,000; all other forms of religious belief, 174,000,000. Gautama Buddha attempted to reform Brahmanism, and his religion, after a brief home success, was driven out of India, utterly and permanently, as was Christianity out of Palestine. As nearly all Africa seems disposed to accept Islamism, so Asia, except India, Arabia and Persia, unites in worshiping Gautama Buddha, who might well say with Jesus Christ, "A prophet is not without honor save in his own country."

MEXICO AND THE MEXICANS.

CHAPTER LXXII.

SPANISH THIRST FOR GOLD—THE DISCOVERY BY CORTEZ—THE AZTECS AND THEIR CIVILIZATION—THE CONQUEST OF MEXICO—NEW SPAIN—MEXICAN INDEPENDENCE—CIVIL WAR AND "MEXICANIZATION"—SANTA ANNA AND HIS POLITICAL FORTUNES—THE WAR BETWEEN MEXICO AND THE UNITED STATES AND ITS TERRITORIAL RESULT—DISESTABLISHMENT OF THE CHURCH—MAXIMILIAN AND THE MONROE DOCTRINE—JUAREZ AND POLITICAL STABILITY—SUBSEQUENT PRESIDENTS—THE FEDERAL SYSTEM—CITY OF MEXICO—RESOURCES OF THE COUNTRY AND THE TOTAL YIELD OF SILVER AND GOLD—AGRICULTURE AND TRANSPORTATION—BANCO NACIONAL MEXICANO.

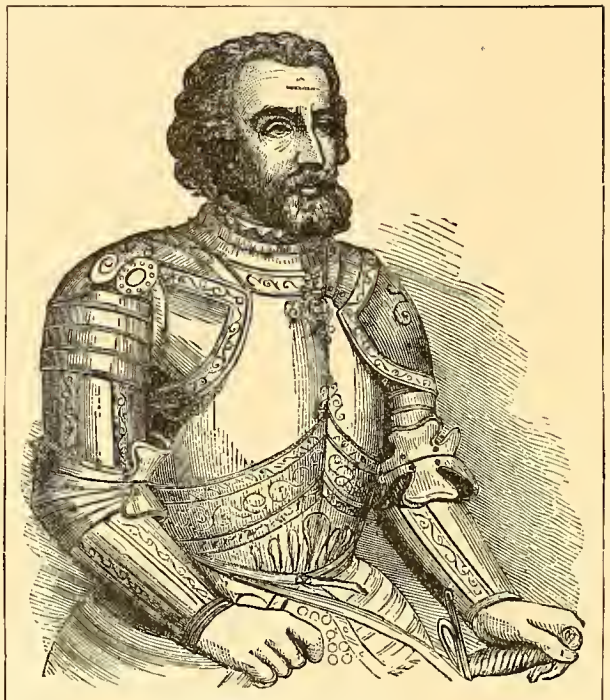
THE historian Prescott remarks of the Spaniards who braved the perils of the ocean to follow where Christopher Columbus had led that they were "afflicted with a thirst for which gold was a specific remedy." Columbus himself wasted much of the time which should have been spent in harvesting the field which he had discovered in a fruitless search for the precious metals. Neither on the islands of the Caribbean sea where he first saw the new world nor on the Atlantic coast were to be found in any considerable quantities what they all sought. The gold and the silver lay farther west, in what was long known as New Spain, later as Mexico, and in the region farther south on the Pacific coast.

Mexico is the southern portion of North America. Its area is 761,640 square miles, and its population about 10,000,000. It was in the year 1519 that Spanish avarice discovered Mexico. Hernando Cortez landed at what is now Vera Cruz, on the Atlantic, or gulf side of the country, having under his command less than six hundred men. He had with him two things unknown to the natives, gunpowder and horses. Dr. Draper attributes the fall of aboriginal Mexico to the lack of horses. The country which is now almost overrun with them was then wholly destitute of them. The invader destroyed his ships, to prevent retreat. But before proceeding with the exploits of this intrepid but detestable intruder it may be well to survey the country which he found and despoiled.

"At the beginning of the sixteenth century," says Prescott, "the Aztec dominion reached across the continent, from the Atlantic to the Pacific." It was a truly magnificent empire. The government was a monarchy, but the monarch was elected, no one being eligible, however, but the brothers or nephews of the late king. A system of hieroglyphics resembling the Egyptian was in use, serving as a means of promulgating and preserving laws and records. According to the dubious testimony of Spanish historians the Aztecs sacrificed human beings to appease their gods, sometimes immolating upon the altar of worship no less than 20,000 victims. Of course this must be a gross exaggeration, but the

horrible custom no doubt prevailed. Otherwise the people were far advanced. Their especial excellence was astronomy. In that science they attained remarkable proficiency. They had discovered the cause of eclipses, and the location in the heavens of the more important constellations. They could calculate time accurately. They were good farmers, succeeding remarkably well in their agriculture, considering the fact that they had no beasts of burden.

"The Aztec character," to quote farther from Prescott, "was perfectly original and unique. It was made up of incongruities, apparently irreconcilable. It blended into one the marked peculiarities of different nations, not only of the same phase of civilization, but as far removed from each other as the extremes of barbarism and refinement. It may find a fitting parallel in their own wonderful climate, capable of producing on a few square leagues of surface the boundless varieties of vegetable forms which belong to the frozen regions of the north, the temperate zone of Europe and the burning skies of Arabia and Hindustan." Cortez found the Aztec throne occupied by Montezuma II. He had succeeded his uncle, the first and great Montezuma, sixteen years before. The uncle had extended his kingdom by the conquests of the Mextecas and the Tlaxcalans. The capital (the city of Mexico) was called Tenochtitlan. The following description is given of it: "The city was nine miles in circumference and the number of its houses was about 60,000, and of inhabitants probably 500,000. Though a few of the streets were wide and of great length, most of them were narrow and lined with mean houses. The large streets were intersected by numerous canals crossed by bridges. The palace, near the center of the city, was a pile of low, irregular stone buildings of vast extent. It was a walled town, well garrisoned." The wonderful strangers were treated with cordiality and confidence, at first. Montezuma allotted Cortez a palace for his occupancy. This kindness was repaid with treachery and cruelty. The king was seized and imprisoned, his life sacrificed and his capital destroyed.



HERNANDO CORTEZ.

The news that Cortez had discovered the ardently sought land of gold and silver some way reached the Spaniards in Cuba and in the mother country. Others joined him, and with their aid and the aid of tribes hostile to the Aztecs, he succeeded in subjugating the country. In 1523 the invader was appointed governor and captain-general of what was then called New Spain, which position he held without interruption until 1528, when he returned to Spain. After an absence of two years he resumed the governorship of New Spain, remaining ten years. In 1540 he returned to Spain, dying in 1547. Cortez established slavery, compelling the natives to till the soil and work the mines for their conquerors. They were somewhat skillful in mining, and it was only that feature of the country which interested the Spaniards.

From the time of Cortez until independence was achieved, about three centuries, there were sixty-four viceroys, or governors. During that period the present Mexican people may be said to have come into existence, for the native is neither Indian nor Spanish, but a mixture of both. For a long time, however, the foreign element was an alien element. Mexico was looked upon by the mother country during all the colonial period, as a good place to accumulate a fortune, but a poor place to enjoy it.

The native population had its aristocracy. The Aztec noblemen were called *Caciques.* They were never in any sort of personal servitude, but as a class they were deprived of the opportunities which of right belonged to them. The Creoles were also deprived of political privileges. The government was administered, and the army officered, by men sent over from Spain for that purpose.

MEXICAN CACIQUE.

The first formidable resistance to the home government occurred in 1810, under a priest named Hidalgo. It was soon suppressed and the leader shot. Ten years later a native of Mexico, Don Augustin Iturbide, came forward as the leader of a movement for independence. The declaration of independence was issued February 24, 1821. The country was ripe for it. In the autumn the colonial government was forced to surrender unconditionally. The viceroy vacated the capital. In the following May the army declared Iturbide emperor. Spain was in no condition to assert its claim to sovereignty.

But the end was only the beginning. The struggle for independence over, civil war began. In December next, Santa Anna, who was destined to be the most prominent man in Mexican affairs for more than thirty years, led a republican movement by proclaiming the republic of Vera Cruz. The country seemed to be on the eve of a protracted civil war. It was averted, temporarily, by the abdication, in March, of Iturbide. He was exiled and a provisional government established. A condition bordering on anarchy prevailed until October 4, 1824, when a constitution, framed in imitation of the constitution of the United States, was adopted. Under that organic law the republic consisted of nineteen states and five territories. The first president was Victoria. Iturbide returned and attempted to reclaim the throne. He was defeated, captured and shot.

Affairs moved on tolerably smoothly until 1828, when a presidential election gave rise to another civil war, which resulted in the success of the insurgents. In the year following, Spain so far bestirred itself as to attempt to regain control of the country, but the army sent over for that purpose was defeated in a few months, disbanded and sent to Cuba. That was the end of Spanish intervention in Mexico.

One insurrection followed another in quick succession for quite a long series of years until a new world was added to the English vocabulary, *Mexicanization* becoming a synonym for elections which lead to anarchy. In 1833 Santa Anna came to the fore as president. He ruled for two years, during which time a new constitution was adopted under which the authority of the central government was greatly increased. In the meanwhile that portion of Mexico north of the Rio Grande river revolted and declared itself independent, taking the name of Texas. Without anticipating what properly comes under the head of Texas, it may be said the success of that secession had the effect to bring on a relapse into anarchy. The president whom Santa Anna had driven into exile, Bustamante, returned and became president. That was in 1837. Before the year expired Santa Anna returned and was able to regain much of the reality of power. In 1839 he became the recognized president. In July of the same year General Bravo deposed him and usurped the reins of government. His rule continued just one week.

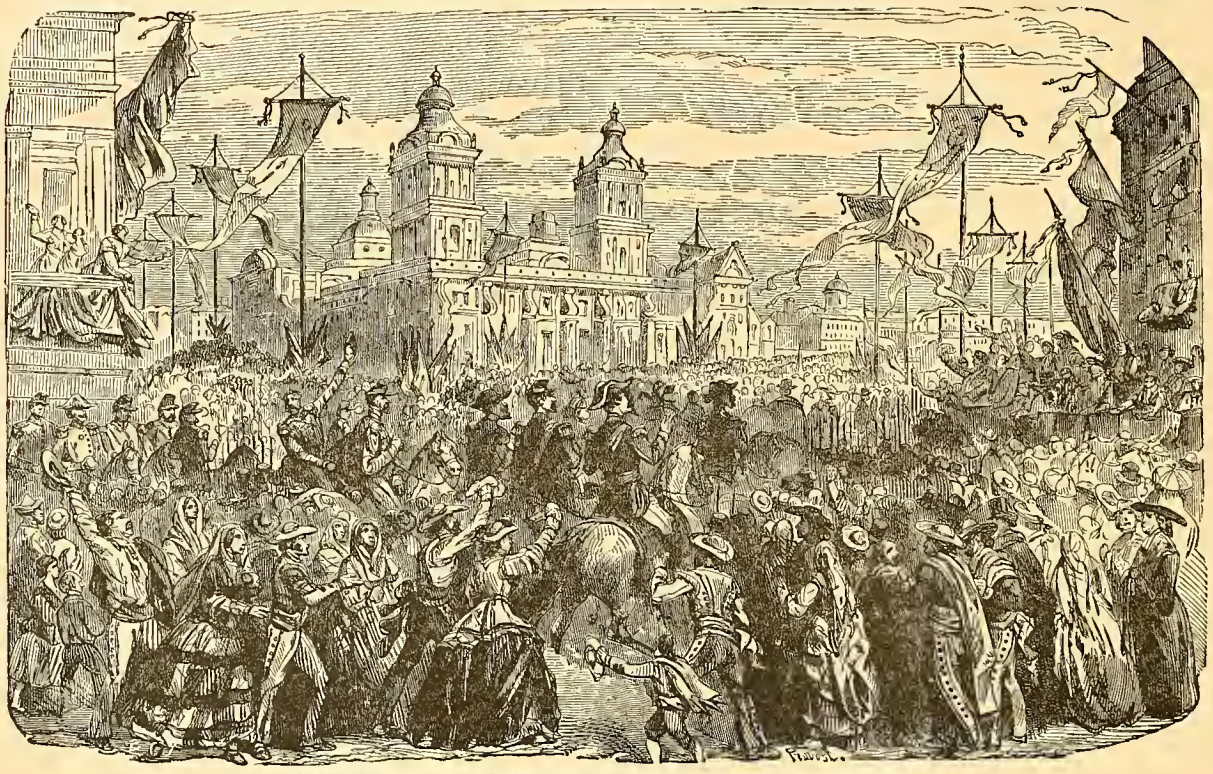
SANTA ANNA.

Out of the confusion which followed arose a dictatorial triumvirate, Santa Anna, Bravo and Canalizo, being the three rulers. A new constitution was adopted in 1843, under which Santa Anna became president again. Before the year closed he was deposed and Canalizo put in his place, but in December following still another man, General Herrera, was elevated to the presidency. A year later and General Paredes succeeded him in the same revolutionary way.

In the meanwhile the United States, without just cause, had provoked war with Mexico. That war brought Santa Anna back from exile to be the leading general. The great republic found it an easy task to overrun and override the little republic. In every

engagement the United States was victorious. In 1848 a treaty of peace was negotiated, by virtue of which an immense area of country was taken from Mexico and added to the United States, including California, New Mexica, Nevada, and in general the region known as the great mineral belt of this republic. A territory which had never been of much value to Mexico soon developed such a wealth of gold and silver as to be positively revolutionary to the monetary system of the entire world.

contract, and the union of church and state abolished. When the United States became involved in civil war the three European powers, France, Spain and England, conceived that the time had come to foist upon Mexico a foreign-born emperor. Louis Napoleon was the prime mover in the plot. Enormous claims against the Mexican government were presented. A Spanish force under General Prim occupied Vera Cruz, soon reinforced by English and French troops. It was arranged that those claims



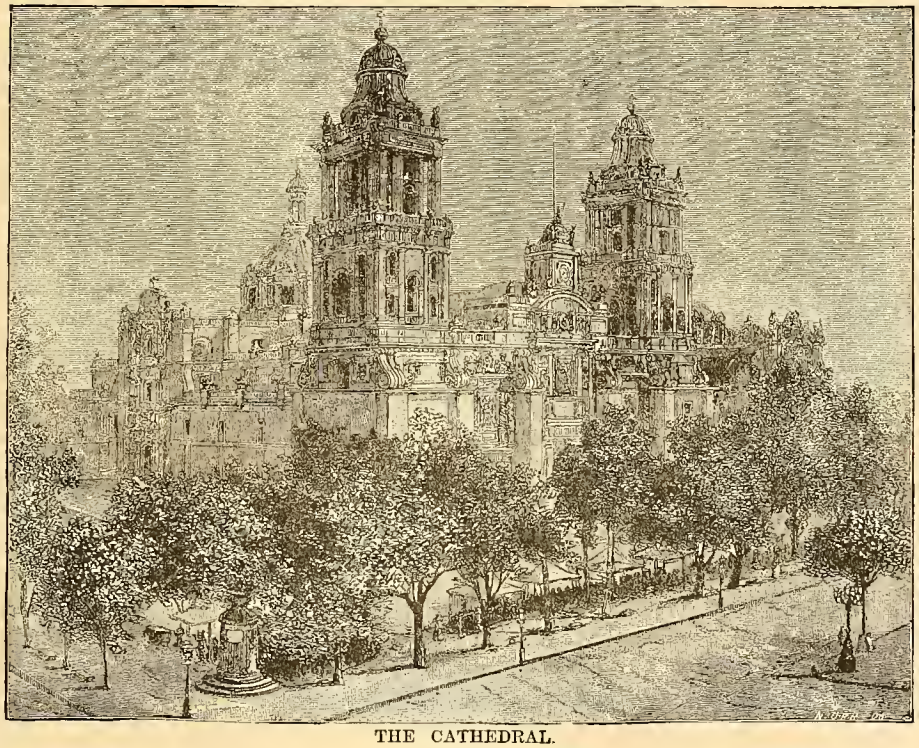
ENTRY OF THE FRENCH TROOPS INTO THE CITY OF MEXICO.

Santa Anna was now in disgrace and once more compelled to leave the country. Again revolutions followed each other in quick succession. At last, in 1861, Benito Juarez gained possession of the government, and succeeded in holding it long enough to effect many radical reforms, and when he finally retired from public life the country had acquired political stability. The power of the priesthood had been the especial curse of Mexico. Under Juarez, who was a full-blooded Aztec, the property of the church, nearly one-half of the real estate of the republic, was confiscated. Monasticism was abolished, also ecclesiastical courts. Marriage was made a civil

should be paid out of the customs revenue, and England and Spain withdrew. But the French forces remained. The church party co-operated with the French, and the native government was powerless. The United States protested, but was in no condition to enforce its protest. An hereditary monarchy was declared established July 10, 1863. The crown was tendered to the Archduke of Austria, Maximilian. With much pomp and circumstance he accepted, departing with his wife, "poor Carlotta," for his empire, having first received the blessing of the Pope and the farewell good wishes of the sovereigns of France, England and Belgium. His formal en-

try into the city of Mexico occurred June 12, 1864. Having no child, he adopted as his heir the son of the Emperor Iturbide. French bayonets propped the throne, and he seemed to be master of the situation.

But when the United States settled its own trouble it turned its attention to Mexico, demanding the withdrawal of the foreign troops. The moral support of this government was of the greatest service to Juarez and the Mexican patriots. The French government was given distinctly to understand that it must cease its intervention or prepare for war with the United States. This protest had the desired effect. Louis Napoleon sent an envoy to Maximilian urging him to abdicate. He refused to do so. The French troops were withdrawn, the last detachment leaving Mexican soil early in 1867.



THE CATHEDRAL.

Maximilian had fatally mistaken his strength. Wholesale desertions followed, and in a few months he was a prisoner. A court-martial tried him, and very justly condemned him to be shot. On the 19th of June, 1867, he and his two generals, Miramon and Mejia, were executed. Thus ingloriously ended the great test case of European intervention on the American continent. The bullet that terminated the life of Maximilian and rendered his poor wife a maniac, established that part of the "Monroe doctrine" which means the non-intervention of foreign governments in American affairs. The lesson was severe, but the result was well worth the cost.

Mexico was substantially harmonious under the restored rule of Juarez. He held the reins of government until his death in 1872, having been re-elected in 1871. His successor was Chief Justice Lerdo de Tejada, who was succeeded by General Diaz. December 1, 1880, General Gonzales was inaugurated President.

As now constituted, Mexico consists of twenty-seven states and one territory, the latter being Lower California. The city of Mexico, like the city of Washington, belongs in a district which is under the exclusive jurisdiction of the general government. The Mexican District of Columbia is called the Federal District of Mexico.

There are several cities in Mexico of some importance, but the only really large one is the capital. That has a population of 250,000. Tradition has it

that it was founded about the middle of the fourteenth century. Cortez destroyed the old city, and laid out the new town with wide streets and on a magnificent scale. It chief structure is a cathedral which is thought to have cost not less than $2,500,000. The academy of San Carlos is remarkable as containing the most valuable collection of paintings in America.

Mexico is rich in undeveloped resources. Even the mines have yielded but a very small per cent. of their capacity. The eighteenth century witnessed the most prolific yield of those mines. The long period of civil disquietude operated very unfavorably upon the mining interest. There are, however, eleven mints in the country which coin annually about $20,000,000, mostly silver. The total production of the Mexican mines up to 1875 is estimated at $4,300,000,000; the total coinage to that date had been $3,063,660,068. About 95 per cent. of all this was silver.

The agricultural resources of the country are very great, but owing to the indolence of the people, and the difficulties of transportation, very little is raised for export. At the end of 1879 the total number of miles of railway open to traffic was only 372, the "National Mexican" being the principal line. It extends from Vera Cruz to the City of Mexico. Other lines are in process of construction. It is expected that direct communication by rail between the United States and Mexico will soon be established, leading to a revolution in the commercial relations of the two countries. At the present time there is no paper money used in Mexico, except a little United States money on the border. In January, 1882, a charter was granted for the "Banco Nacional Mexicano," with a minimum capital of $3,000,000 and a maximum capital of $20,000,000, with authority to establish branches and issue $3 of paper money for every $1 of coin in the treasury.

This chapter cannot be closed better than by giving, in a condensed form, Prescott's description of the great *Coteocalli*, or temple of Mexico, completed in 1486, the most remarkable building ever erected in America. It was "a solid pyramidal structure of earth and pebbles, coated externally with white hewn stones. It was square, its sides facing the cardinal points, and was divided into five stories, each of which receded so as to be smaller than that below it. The ascent was by a flight of 114 steps on the outside, so contrived that to reach the top it was necessary to pass four times around the whole edifice. The base of the temple is supposed to have been 300 feet square. The summit was a broad area covered with flat stones. On it were two towers or sanctuaries, and before each was an altar on which a fire was kept continually burning." Near this temple was garrisoned a guard of 10,000 soldiers. It may well be doubted if the present Mexicans could present any equally high evidence of civilization, in any department of human effort.

SOUTH AMERICA.

CHAPTER LXXIII

THE SOUTH AMERICAN CONTINENT, AS A WHOLE—PATAGONIA AND THE PATAGONIANS—THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC—THE PARADISE OF CATTLE AND INDOLENCE—URUGUAY—PARAGUAY, ITS HISTORY AND MELANCHOLY FATE—FROM THE JESUITS TO LOPEZ—BRAZIL, THE ONLY EMPIRE IN AMERICA—THE AMAZON, RIO DE JANEIRO, DIAMOND-BEDS AND COFFEE RAISING—PORTUGAL AND THE PORTUGUESE DYNASTY IN BRAZIL—NATIONAL INDEPENDENCE WITHOUT CONFLICT—GUIANA, ENGLISH, FRENCH AND DUTCH—VENEZUELA—BOLIVAR, THE LIBERATOR—THE WORK ACCOMPLISHED BY BOLIVAR—THE UNITED STATES OF COLOMBIA—PERU—PIZARRO AND THE INCAS—MOUNTAINS AND MINES—GUANO-BEDS AND RAILROADS—BOLIVIA—CHILI AND THE CHILIANS—THE LEADING NATION OF SOUTH AMERICA—THE HISTORY AND CONDITION OF CHILI—THE LATE WAR BETWEEN CHILI, ITS CAUSE AND PROBABLE RESULT.

THUS far in the history of the world the only continental portion of America really known to Columbus has contributed very little to the benefit of mankind, and is still a land of great possibilities, rather than actual achievement. Until a comparatively recent period the entire continent of South America, so far as it was inhabited by civilized man, was under the colonial yoke, and that not of liberal and progressive England, but of narrow and repressive Spain and Portugal. Almost at the same time that Mexico became independent the colonies of Spain farther south broke their chains, and Portugal's one dependency, Brazil, changed from a colony to an empire. Columbus landed at the mouth of the Orinoco river, Venezuela, in 1498, taking possession of the continent in the name of his august sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella. That was the shadow cast before by a dominion which continued for about three hundred and thirty years.

South America extends from the isthmus of Panama to Cape Horn, a distance of about 4,800 miles. Its area is about 7,000,000 square miles, or 1,500,000 square miles less than North America.

The most notable general feature of the continent is the mountain range known as the Andes, which lies along the Pacific coast in almost a straight line for over 4,000 miles. It is not wide, but high and precipitate. In altitude it is unrivaled, except by the Himalayas. The highest peak of the Andes is the Sonata, 24,800, feet; of the Himalayas, Everest, 29,000 feet. The Andes has no less than thirty active volcanoes, the highest being the Sahama in Peru. This vast mountain range is rich in precious minerals. On the east side of it flows the largest river in the world, the Amazon. Its capacious mouth, 95 miles wide, is at the very equator. For over two thousand miles the Amazon is navigable.

The equatorial portion of the continent is not so warm, by any means, as the same latitude in the old worlds, thanks to the snow-capped Andes, the trade winds and other causes. The condor is the most

remarkable of the animate products of the country, whether bird or beast. That solitary dweller in the least accessible portions of the Andes is the largest bird in the world. Its body is from three to three and a half feet long. In some portions of the continent a great variety of small monkeys abound. The other peculiarities of the continent will appear in connection with the several countries.

The southern apex, Patagonia, is very nearly worthless. The wild beasts and wilder men roam over its barren rocks and frost-bound hills unmolested by white men. It was first visited in 1520 by Magellan, who named it Patagonia (Big-feet). The inhabitants are large and fierce. So far as now known, that portion of the continent is incapable of being made useful. The same is true of a group of islands, in that vicinity, the Archipelago of Terra del Fuego.

NATIVES OF PATAGONIA.

North of Patagonia, and adjoining it on the east side of the Andes, lies the Argentine Republic, of which Buenos Ayres, at the mouth of the Rio de la Plata river, is the capital. The wealth of that country consists of wool and hides. The meat is hardly marketable at all, so plenty is it. The skins of the cattle and the clothing of the sheep can be exported to advantage, and are the main source of revenue. The annual export of wool averages over 200,000,000 pounds. The number of hides exported annually is about 3,000,000. The exportation of horse hides is also very considerable, although sensibly diminishing. Herds of horses, thousands in number, roam wild over the pampas, yet horses were unknown there until introduced from Europe in 1536 by Mendoza. Fourteen years later goats and sheep were introduced, and seven years later cattle. Where nature was best prepared for these most useful animals they were not known until what might be called human accident occurred (for no special pains were taken in South America or any where else by the Spaniards to introduce European animals). The La Plata was discovered in 1516 by Juan Diaz de Salis. The climate is delightful, and to those who seek ease the country is inviting. At the present time it seems to be quite attractive to the Italians. The republic is a federal union of fourteen states. Some claim to authority over Patagonia is asserted by the Argentine government. The Argentine population is about 2,000,000, including the 40,000 in Patagonia.

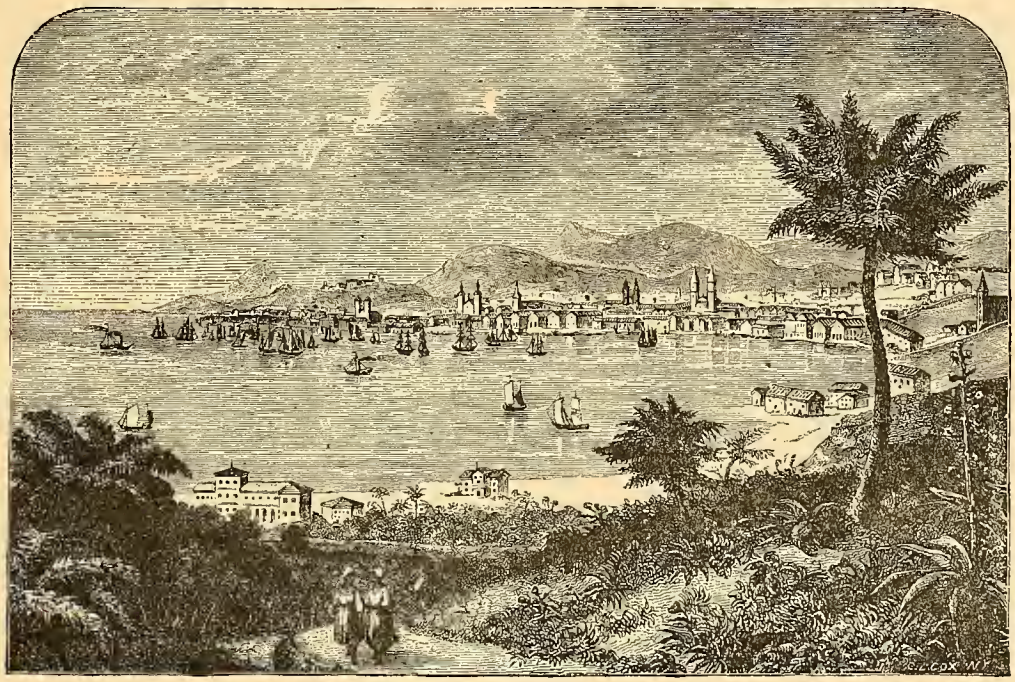
A part of the La Plata country forms a distinct republic, called Uruguay. This small nation has an area of 63,300 square miles, and a population of about 500,000. It is indistinguishable, except in a political way, from the Argentine Republic. The first settlement was made there, and in Paraguay which is farther inland, in 1622, by Spanish Jesuits. When Spain and Portugal became distinct nations, after their brief union, there was a sharp rivalry for the possession of both Paraguay and Uruguay, lying as they do between the old Spanish colony and state of Buenos Ayres and Brazil which was settled by emigrants from Portugal. In 1828 Brazil recognized Uruguay as an independent republic; since then it has continued to vegetate without serious molestation.

Paraguay is a nominal republic, but in point of fact it is under the mild dominion of the great (geographically speaking) empire north of it. It was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, the brave navigator, who accompanied his father, John Cabot, to Canada in the first fleet ever sent to the new world by England. It was in the year 1526 that Cabot, searching for a passage across the continent, sailed up the broad La Plata, as far as the confluence of the

SEBASTIAN CABOT.

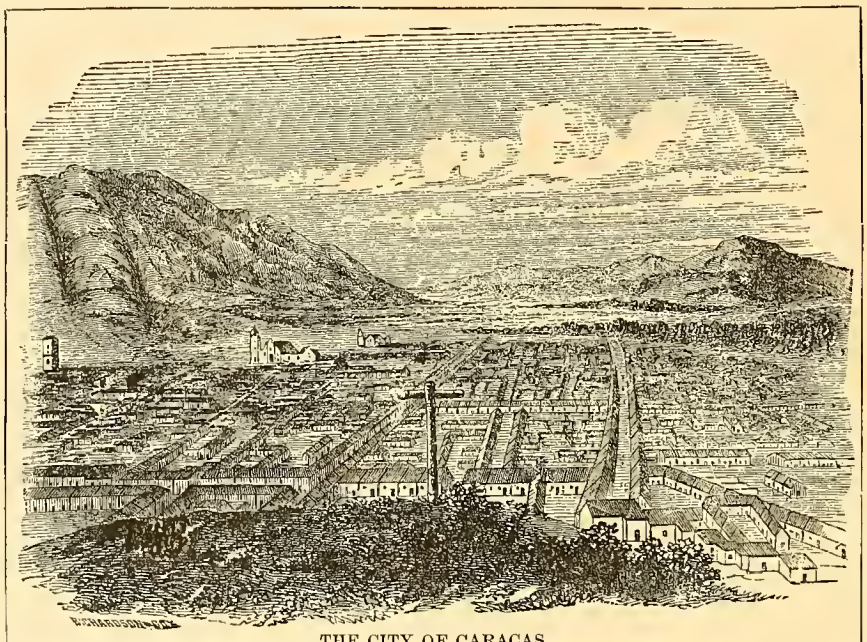
Paraguay and Parana rivers. He was in the employ of Spain at the time. In 1536 the country was settled, and early acquired very considerable prominence. The Spaniards freely intermarried with the natives, called Payaguas. The Jesuits flocked thither as early as 1610 and acquired almost absolute sovereignty over the natives. In 1767 they were expelled from there as from all the Spanish colonies. They had erected splendid churches and lofty mansions which attest their vanished dominion. In 1811 the foreign yoke was thrown off, and for twenty-nine years the country was strangely and completely isolated. During that period it was ruled by that unique character, Jose Gaspar Rodriguez Francia. Speaking of his rule, Hon. C. A. Washburne, late diplomatic representative of the United States at Paraguay, says, "The country being accessible only by way of the river, he stopped all ingress and egress, allowing during all this time only some half a dozen foreigners to leave the country and none to enter it. The shipping then in the river stayed there, rotted, and fell to pieces." At the death of Francia the country was without even the form of a government. Carlos Antonio Lopez finally succeeded to the dictatorship, holding it until 1862, under the title of President. At his death, his more illustrious son, Francisco Solano Lopez, succeeded him. He set up as protector of the "equilibrium" of the La Plata region. He soon inaugurated war with Brazil, the Argentine Republic and Uruguay. For five years (1865–1870) the war was waged. The country was nearly depopulated before Lopez was killed and peace restored.

Proceeding farther north, still on the east side of the Andes, we come to the one American monarchy, the Empire of Brazil. It occupies nearly one-half of the entire continent, extending from latitude 4° 23′ north, to latitude 4° 44′ south. Its area is 3,242,900 square miles. The country has some gold, but its especial wealth of a mineral nature consists of diamonds, found in river beds. But the sugar and coffee productions of the empire are of more value each year than all the mining products of a period of eighty years. The population is about 10,000,000, not including the shifting, vagabondish aboriginal population, estimated at about 1,000,000. Brazil is the only part of America now where slavery has a legal existence, and it is being gradually



VIEW OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

extinguished there. Brazil was discovered in 1500 by Pincon, a companion of Columbus. It was early selected by the Portuguese as their favorite resort in America. In 1808 the king of Portugal, John VI., took refuge from the French in Brazil, accompanied by his court. He remained there until 1820, to the great benefit of the country. When Napoleon fell, he took the title of King of Portugal, Algarve and Brazil. A national congress was assembled at Rio de Janeiro in 1822, when Dom Pedro, son of John VI., was elected "Perpetual Protector." The country was declared independent, and Portugal acquiescedwithout a murmur."Constitutional Emperor" was soon after adopted. In 1831 Dom Pedro I. abdicated in favor of his son Dom Pedro II., the present emperor. Father, son, and grandson deserve high credit for patriotism and good ability, without brilliancy or great force of character. The empire is divided into numerous provinces for administrative purposes. In nothing excepting its mighty river, the Amazon, its diamond-beds and the extent of its area, is Brazil at all above the dead level of uninteresting mediocrity. The chief cities of Brazil are Rio de Janeiro, the capital and metropolis, and the largest city of South America, population nearly 300,000; Bahia, or San Salvador, population, 180,000; Pernambuco, population, 90,000; Maranhao, population, 40,000.



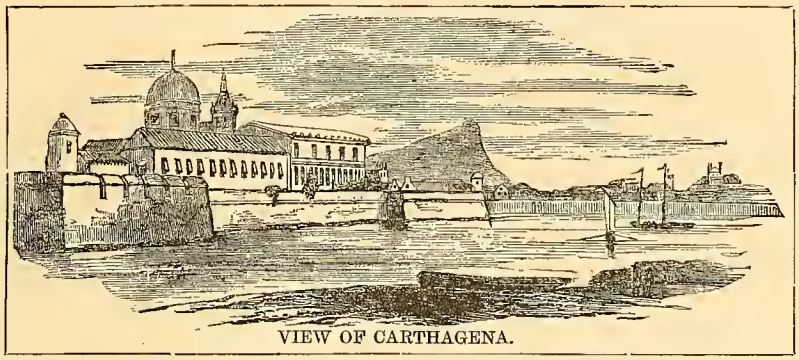
THE CITY OF CARACAS.

There are two geographical terms so nearly alike as to be confusing, Guinea, a common name of a large tract of country on the western coast of Africa, and Guiana, a large territory of the northeastern part of South America, between the Amazon and the Orinoco. The latter country is subject to several powers, Great Britain, France, Holland, Brazil and Venezuela. It is a tropical wilderness, valuable only for its few large sugar plantations and its forests from which are shipped various kinds of high-priced lumber. French Guiana, with the island of Cayenne just off the coast, is used as a penal colony. In the early days of American discovery it was supposed that that region was rich in gold, but the supposed precious metals were only mica and quartzose rock.

North and west of Guiana stretches Venezuela, of which Caracas, on the seaboard, is the capital. It has a population of something less than 2,000,000 and an area of 403,261 square miles. Coffee is its chief article of export, but cotton, cacao, sugar, tobacco and indigo are also important productions for exportation. The republic consists of twenty states and one territory. The president is in effect almost dictator. Diamonds, gold, silver, tin, zinc, quicksilver and copper are believed to abound, but the mineral wealth has never been very much developed. The capital, Caracas, has a population of about fifty thousand souls, and is a somewhat thrifty seaport. Its chief honor is, however, that it can boast being the birthplace of the Great Liberator of South America, Simon Bolivar, whose services may well be narrated in this connection.

The Liberator was born July 25, 1783. He inherited immense wealth from his father. His education was completed at Madrid. In 1810 he joined the patriot army. In three years he rose to eminence as a soldier and entered Caracas in triumph.

But his achievements were not in the interest of that particular part of the continent. All Spanish America rebelled at about the same time, and the South American colonies formed one power, much as the thirteen colonies which afterwards became the United States, did. The period of struggle, resulting in independence for all continental Spanish America, extended from 1810 to 1825. If Spain had been free to concentrate its energies, wasted though they were, upon any one colony, as now upon Cuba, the uprising might have been suppressed; but there was either actual rebellion or the mutterings of the coming storm all along the line from Patagonia to the United States, and from ocean to ocean. This simultaneousness was not the result of preconcerted action, to any considerable extent, but rather a notable illustration of the familiar truth that "like causes produce like effects." The heel of oppression had become intolerable. The great island of Cuba alone escaped the contagion of liberty and missed its great opportunity by waiting until it had become almost alone in its colonial dependency.



VIEW OF CARTHAGENA.

General Bolivar was made first president of Colombia in 1819. A few years later he led an army of liberation into Peru, and its independence was also achieved. The portion of country between the present Peru and Chili, extending much farther east than either of them, was created a distinct republic, named, in honor of the Great Liberator, Bolivia. That was in 1825.

During those fifteen years Bolivar made many enemies, and was accused of trying to consolidate South America into a kingdom, himself to be the founder of a dynasty of his own. He may not have been as free from personal ambition as our own Washington, but he had a very different people to deal with, and only one of the many republics (Chili) has thus far shown capacity for self government. In 1830 General Bolivar died, not having the high satisfaction of seeing the South American problem solved. In him Venezuela furnished the liberator of several states, but not the founder upon a solid basis of free institutions.

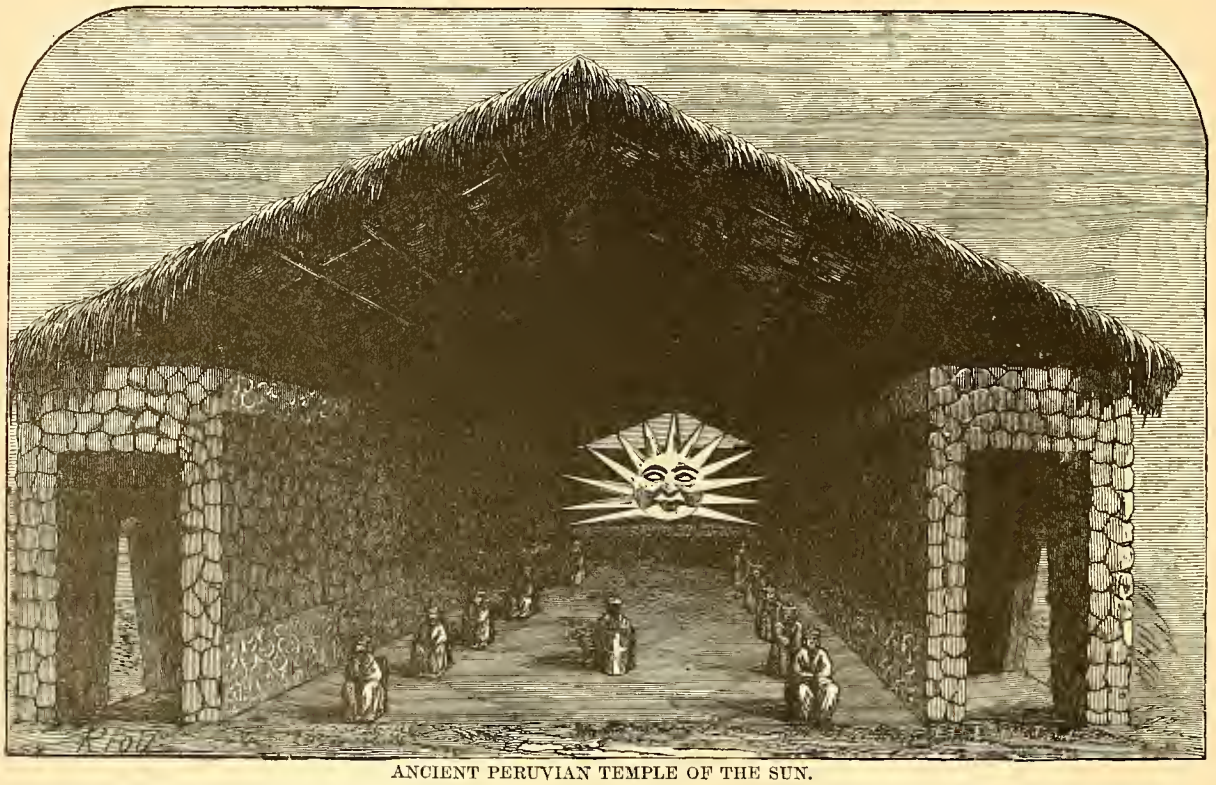
It may here be added that the South American republics have been rent and torn frequently with civil wars and wars between each other, and as a whole they have cast discredit upon the principle of self-government. But the condition of those countries has been materially improved during the period of independence, notwithstanding all hindrances.

We return now to the detailed consideration of the nations of South America.

The United States of Colombia, formerly New Granada, is the extreme northwestern portion of the continent. It has an area of 357,179 square miles and a population of nearly three millions. The first Spanish colony was established there in 1510. The Cauca valley is believed to be very rich in minerals and capacity for tropical production; but it is so malarious as to be a dangerous place for any but natives to live. Some attempts have been made to open up the valley and develop its resources by Yankee enterprise, but without success. Bogata, the capital, is an inland city, pleasantly situated on the San Francisco river. Owing to its high altitude, it enjoys a delightful climate. It is an old city, dating back to 1537. Its population is about 40,000. A few miles below the city is the great cataract of Tequendama, with a perpendicular fall of 600 feet. The United States of Colombia has about the same sea-water frontage on the Pacific Ocean as on the Caribbean sea. Carthagena is its principal seaport. Its principal communication with the world is by way of the Pacific and across the Isthmus of Panama, to the southeast end of which it extends.

Directly south of Colombia, between it and Peru, lies the republic of Ecuador, so called because it is beneath the equator. Its extent is from

1° 35′ north to 5° 50′ south. From east to west it extends about 800 miles. The estimated area is 250,000 square miles. It might well be called the home of the volcanos, for it has no less than sixteen in good working order. The famous truncated cone, Cotopaxi, towering to the height of 18,875 feet, and the still loftier Chimborazo (21,424 feet high) are the chief natural curiosities of the country. Earthquakes are common and often very severe. It is supposed that its capital, Quito, was once the capital of a flourishing Indian empire. The present population is exceptionally uninteresting and the country is peculiarly destitute of attractions.



ANCIENT PERUVIAN TEMPLE OF THE SUN.

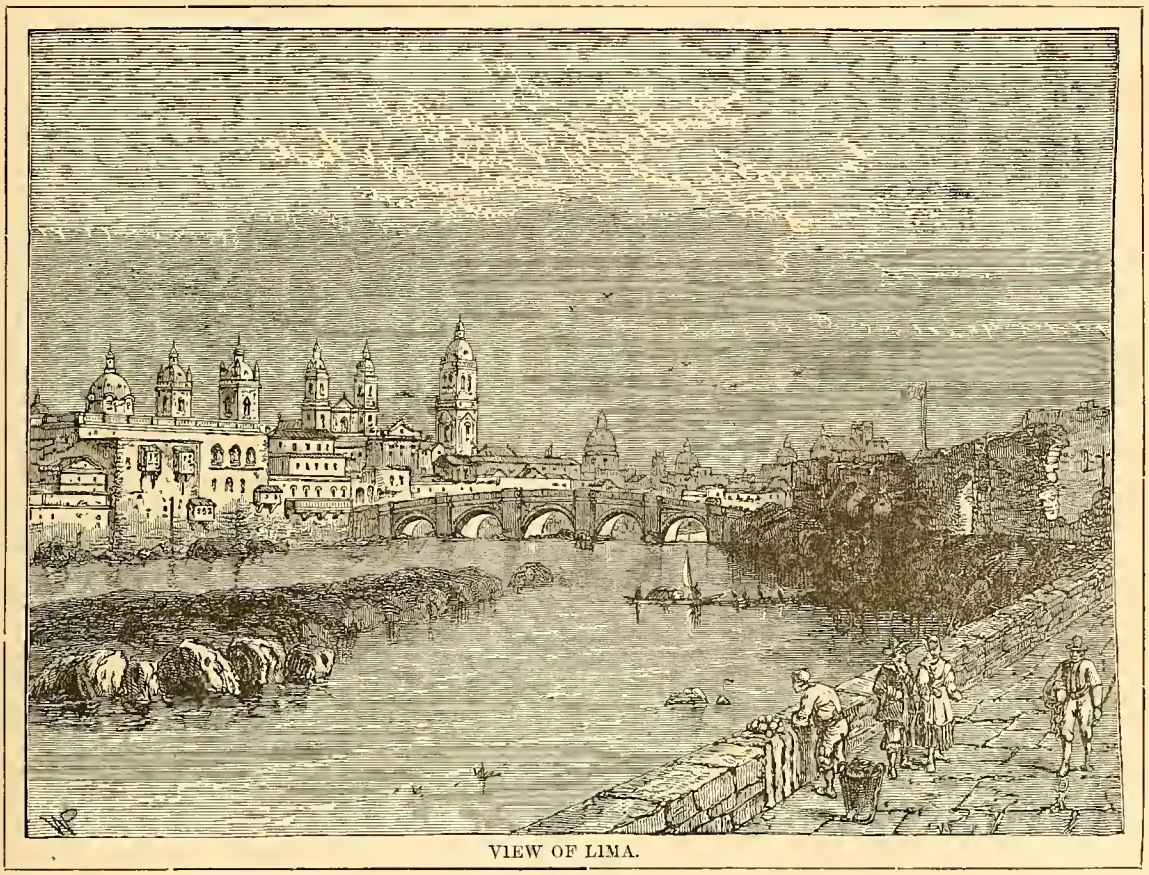
We are now arrived, in our circuit around the continent, at Peru, the country having the most interest in history of any in South America. It is the only one, in fact, which may be said to fill any considerable space in history, while its most prosperous neighbor, Chili, alone seems to be on the highway to an important future.

Peru lies between latitudes 30° 20′ and 22° 20′ south and longtitudes 67° and 81° 26′ west. The area is about 503,000 square miles and the population a trifle over 2,500,000. It is estimated that 57 per cent. of the inhabitants are Indians, and 23 per cent. Creoles, or "Chalos." In 1876 the capital, Lima, had a population of 160,056 It is six miles inland from the seaport town of Callao. Politically, the republic is divided into seventeen departments and has a constitution modeled after that of the United States, or, rather, such was the case previous to the late disastrous war with Chili, since which time the government has been in a chaotic condition, with an uncertain future. Nature has divided it into three parts. Between the ocean and the Andes lies a narrow strip of fairly level land, varying in width from 60 to 20 miles. This region is called the coast. Except in the near vicinity of rivers and rivulets the coast is a barren waste. Rains are unknown in that region. There are two parallel ranges of the Andes, and between them extends the best part of the country. That second division is called the Sierra. It is a series of valleys, somewhat broken with mountain spurs, but in the main very fertile. The average width of the Sierra is 100 miles. It is described as "a region diversified with tropical val-

leys and vast elevated plateaus." Nine-tenths of the cultivated area and four-fifths of the population are to be found in the Sierra. Beyond the second mountain range lies the Montana, very little known. The Indians of that region have never been seriously disturbed, and they are more barbaric than those of the Sierra ever were.

The fame of Peru early reached the Spaniards. They were told of a land in the southwest where gold was as plenty as iron. In 1512 Balboa, governor-general of the Darien colony, tried to find it. He met with no success. Twelve years later an adventurous Spaniard, who had been a swineherd in youth and was destitute of intelligence or character, Francisco Pizarro, made a voyage along the Peruvian coast. Nothing seemed to be accomplished. But in 1531 he made a second voyage, under commission as governor and captain-general, to conquer and rule whatever country he could find. He sailed south from Panama fourteen days, when he landed, captured and plundered a city. The invaders built a town which they called San Miguel. That was the beginning of a conquest hardly if any less important than the subjugation of Mexico by Cortez.

Peru, Ecuador and Bolivia then formed one nation, ruled by the Inca dynasty, with Cuzco as its capital. That remarkable city is 11,380 feet above the level of the sea. The Incas claimed descent from the sun, which they worshiped as the god of the world. Many architectural ruins, including temples and palaces, attest a high degree of attainments in the art of building.



VIEW OF LIMA.

Pizarro was received as a friend by the Inca Atahuallpa. In return for this kindness the gracious sovereign was taken prisoner by the swineherd. He bought his liberty by an enormous ransom of gold to the amount of over seventeen millions of dollars, and even then he was not liberated. On the contrary, he was burned alive. His half-brother was placed upon the throne. Pizarro established his seat

at Lima, which he founded in 1535. That low and brutal wretch treated the natives with unspeakable barbarity until the year 1541 when he was assassinated. The King of Spain had dubbed him Marquis. He married the Inca's daughter. His descendants are among the more aristocratic of the present Peruvian grandees.

Pizarro reduced the natives to slavery and made them work assiduously in the mines. His successor Vaca de Castra, introduced some administrative reforms. It was not many years before African slavery was introduced as a substitute for Indian slavery. The latter was abolished in 1856.

Peru had an uneventful career for nearly three centuries, during which time it contributed immense quantities of gold and silver to the world's stock. The mines are still very rich and profitable. But upon the shore and on neighboring islands of the Pacific is found an article of commerce which is the chief source of Peruvian wealth, the excrement of birds, called guano. Speaking on this point, a recent writer says: "The guano-beds constitute government monopolies of sufficient value to have paid for the construction of 1,000 miles of railways which traverse the Andes in a zigzag way, connecting the Sierra with the seaboard." There are many millions of tons of guano. The Incas protected the birds and the Peruvian farmers then, even more than now, used this best of all fertilizers to enrich the soil. The country has over 2,000 miles of railway, costing about $180,000,000. Their construction was a great triumph of financial management and engineering skill. For the former, Mr. Meiggs deserves the credit; for the latter, the highest praise belongs to another American, Mr. Thorndike.

We have now reached a point at which Chili and Bolivia sustain such relations to Peru that it is best to trace their respective lines of development until they converge toward a point common to the three.

The southern boundary of Peru extends very nearly to the northern extremity of Chili, but not quite. Bolivia separates them, having a seaport, Cabija, which, however, is cut off from the rest of the republic by the desert of Atacama. In the days of the Incas that desert was a favorite burial place, the saltness of the soil preserving the body from decay. The area of Atacama is 70,181 and the population about 5,000. The entire republic of Bolivia has an area of 535,000 square miles and a population of 2,000,000. In the days of Spanish rule the chief part of the country was called either Upper Peru or Charcas, having very little if any individuality. In 1767 it was cut off from Peru and made a part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. It is intermediate between the two, and peculiarly isolated from the rest of the world, hedged in on the east and south by Brazil and the Argentine Republic, on the west and south by Peru and Chili; its only seaboard having the Andes between it and any habitable territory. Bolivia is a mountainous country, comprising as it does the Cordilleras at their greatest altitude. From that range two chains break off, the western, containing many volcanoes and Mount Sajaina, 22,760 feet high; and the eastern, to which belong Mounts Illampu and Illimano.

Lying as it does between southern latitudes 12° and 24°, Bolivia is tropical in climate, except as the mountain tower into the regions of frost, and possesses every range of climate and productions. The interior of the country is productive, but its greatest wealth is mineral. All through the Bolivian Cordilleras silver is found in large quantities, and gold also, both placer and quartz. A railroad is in process of construction along the banks of the Madeira river for about 150 miles. That river empties into the Amazon and is navigable, except as its rapids, which extend for about 150 miles, impede it. With that obstacle overcome, Bolivia might develop into a great and rich country. The capital is the fortified town of Oruro. Formerly it was La Paz. In theory the government is a republic on the most approved American plan, with a president elected for four years; practically the rulers are military dictators, and civil wars have been almost a constant quantity. From 1820 to 1839 Grand-Marshal Santa Cruz ruled Bolivia. Insurrections, assassinations, banishments and anarchy succeeded each other, the last being the deposition of President Campeio, who had been elected in June, 1880. He was deposed for failure to resist successfully the superior power of Chili.

From a mere glance at the map of South America one would infer that Chili was the least important part of the continent, being a narrow strip of land between the Pacific Ocean and the Andes. Of all the South American states on the Pacific coast it alone has no territory east of the great mountain range. As a matter of fact, however, it stands first

in actual importance. It is about 1,200 miles long, and in width varies from 90 to 130 miles. The average height of the Chilian Andes is 14,000 feet above the level of the sea. The highest peak is the porphyritic Nevado of Aconcagua, 22,422 feet high. There are several active volcanoes in this republic, Antuco being the chief. The total area of the country is 132,606 square miles, the population a little more than two millions. It has two large towns, Santiago, the capital, and Valparaiso, the port. The former is in the interior and has a population of 130,000; the latter is midway, nearly, as between northern and southern boundaries, and has a population of about 100,000.

The northern half of Chili is nearly worthless for agriculture, and even the mineral wealth cannot be developed to very good advantage. But the land has rest, comparatively speaking, from civil strife. Says an English writer, "The Chilians have made the best of their advantages, instead of squandering nature's prodigal gifts in strife and indolence. Railroads and telegraphs have been introduced, and a thrifty foreign commerce established. Chili is proverbial for its steady progress in all industrial enterprises, for the absence of political perturbation, and for its punctuality in meeting its financial engagements. Its securities rank among the foremost on the London Stock Exchange, being usually held for investment; it builds its own railways and its own telegraphs without much foreign help; and the money it borrows for such purposes is secured by national and private bonds."

Historically speaking, this portion of the Empire of the Incas began to have a separate existence in 1535, when a Spanish expedition under Diego Almagro pushed southward from Peru as far as Copiapo into the territory of the Purumancians. The natives drove back the intruders. Five years later, Pedro de Valdivia repeated the experiment. He established a permanent settlement, calling the city he founded Santiago, in honor of the patron saint of Spain. After securing his position there he pushed southward to encounter the Araucanians, a tribe never yet subdued, and who continue to occupy a strip of Chilian territory 190 miles in length. The city of Concepcion was founded by Valdivia in the Araucanian country, but in 1559 it was destroyed and Valdivia put to death. For over a century the Spaniards and the Araucanians were at war. The peace of 1665 acknowledged the independence of the native tribe south of Bobio. Again, from 1723 to 1773, the Chilians were at war with their aboriginal neighbors.

Chili was one of the first colonies to rebel against Spain. The movement for independence began in 1810. The first step was to depose the Governor-General, Carrasco, and vest the political authority in a Junta, corresponding to the Continental Congress. The Junta placed General Carrera in supreme authority. But he was unequal to the demands of the case. He was not destined to be the George Washington of his country. Before 1813 closed, Spain had re-established its authority. It might have retained it perhaps, but harsh and oppressive measures followed, provoking a renewal of rebellion in 1816. Speaking of the struggle thus renewed, a Chilian historian says, "The patriots now raised an army in the neighboring province of La Plata, and made General San Martin its commander. He marched into Chili and won an important victory over the royalist forces at Chacabuco, on the 12th of February, 1817. A provisional government was set up by the patriots, and Don Bernardo O'Higgins was placed at its head as supreme dictator. The Spaniards now rallied and defeated the Chilians with heavy loss at Chancharayda; but were themselves utterly routed by the patriots at Chilenos on the 5th of April, 1818. Not more than 500 Spaniards escaped from the field. This victory entirely destroyed the Spanish power in Chili, Peru and Buenos Ayres, and secured the independence of those states. The Spaniards retreated to the port of Valdivia, which they held until 1820, when they surrendered to the Chilian forces." During the next three years General O'Higgins was virtual dictator, but he lost his popularity and had to retire.

A stable government, a genuine republic, was not adopted until 1828. Affairs moved on smoothly, the country steadily growing in prosperity and enjoying the substance and not the mere shadow of republicanism, undisturbed by any serious difficulties, apart from some Indian warfare, until 1864, when war broke out between Spain and Peru. An alliance was formed between Peru, Chili and Bolivia, in accordance with which the three republics made common cause against the mother country, justly looked upon as a common enemy. This alli-

ance was not formal and recognized until 1867. Before that time Chili had shown such strong sympathy with Peru that her coast was blockaded by the Spanish fleet. That blockade led to the capture of the Spanish steamer "Covadonga" by the Chilian steamer, "Esmeralda," and later, to the bombardment of Valparaiso by the Spanish Admiral Nunez. That was a very impolitic thing to do, for the actual loss fell upon foreign residents mainly, and thus secured the ill-will of other nations. The United States offered to mediate between the allies and Spain. The offer was accepted, and in April, 1871, a treaty providing for a cessation of hostilities was signed at Washington. That may well be called the last struggle of Spain to recover its foothold in America.

In 1879 hostilities began between Chili and the allied republics of Bolivia and Peru, growing out of rival territorial claims and claims to Guano-beds, and mineral deposits. Chili insisted that having done more than either of the others to repel the enemy, she was entitled to generous treatment. When the war came she had an army of 22,000 and a navy of ten small steamers and two powerful iron-clads. With these land and naval forces she was an overmatch for the other two nations combined. The war was conducted with great spirit and intrepidity. In the spring of 1881 Callao and Lima were taken, and the Chilians were absolute masters of the situation.

The final settlement of the questions in dispute and of the relations of those countries to each other still remains to be accomplished. The national debts of Peru and Bolivia (especially the former) cannot be ignored. Peru was virtually mortgaged to non-resident capitalists before the last war, and Chili will not be allowed to sacrifice those interests, more especially the guano interests of foreign claimants. It is a curious and appropriate fact that the present question of supreme importance in the public affairs of all South America relates to the excrement of sea-fowls.

In the fall of 1881 the Secretary of State, Mr. Blaine, with the approval of President Arthur, sent two envoys-extraordinary to Peru and Chili for the purpose of facilitating negotiations of amity and protecting Peru from the apprehended unjust demands of her victorious sister republic. Soon after, Mr. Blaine was superseded by Mr. Frelinghuysen who early made material changes in the instructions issued to the chief envoy, Mr. Trescott. It is not absolutely certain what negotiations have been entered into, but it is supposed to be morally certain that the following terms will be exacted and enforced:

First—The absolute annexation of Tarapaca and a large strip of territory immediately north of it. These include all the nitrates and the great bulk of the guano. Second—Chili holds and occupies the district of Arica and Tacna, nominally for ten years, to be then released to Peru on payment of $20,000,000, which they leave her no more power to pay than if it were $20,000,000,000. Arica and Tacna may therefore be considered permanently annexed. Third—The Lobis Islands to be seized and held by Chili so long as there is any guano on them.

Referring to this ultimatum, and the sagacious provision of the Chilians to protect the British interest in Peru, Mr. Blaine declares that the United States has lost a great opportunity to advance its own commercial interest while enforcing the principle of the Monroe doctrine. His words on this point are, "By commercial interests I mean the entire interchange of commodities, the supplying of manufactured articles and raw material, the concentration in our commercial cities of a share of that which will now go wholly to London and Liverpool. The trade of the west coast of South America, from this time forward, will be as much in the hands of Great Britain as the trade of British India." Evidently that portion of the world is in a condition of extreme incertitude both as to domestic and foreign relations.

CENTRAL AMERICA AND THE ISLES OF THE SEA.

CHAPTER LXXIV.

CENTRAL AMERICA IN GENERAL—EARLY SETTLEMENT—POLITICAL DIVISIONS—GAUTEMALA, THE REPUBLICS OF HONDURAS AND SAN SALVADOR—NICARAGUA, COSTA RICA, AND BRITISH HONDURAS—PANAMA—THE WEST INDIES IN GENERAL—THE BAHAMAS—THE ANTILLES—CUBA AND PORTO RICO—CUBAN HISTORY—HAVANA—HAYTI; SPANISH AND FRENCH OCCUPATION OF IT—TOUSSAINT AND NAPOLEON—SOULOUQUE—SAN DOMINGO—JAMAICA—THE LESSER ANTILLES—THE BARBADOES—THE GULF-STREAM—THE BERMUDAS—THE AZORES—THE SANDWICH ISLANDS—THE FIJI ISLANDS—SAMOAN ISLES.

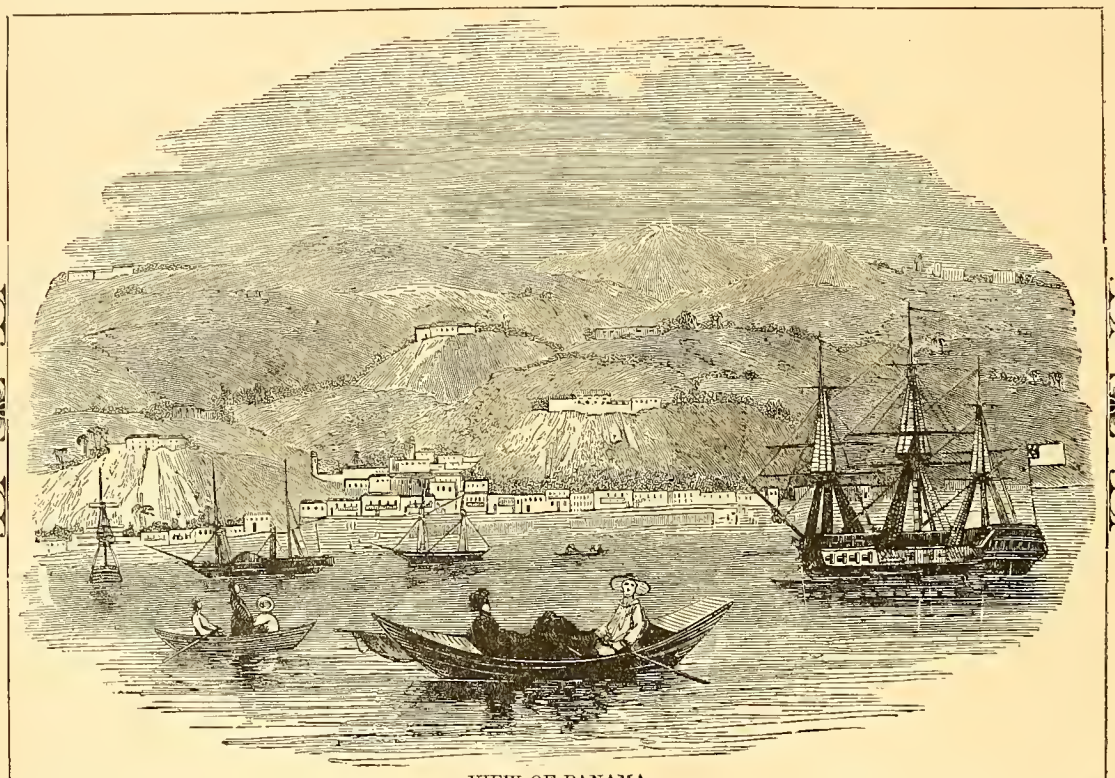
THERE is one unbroken stretch of land from Behrings Straits to the Straits of Magellan, from Cape Prince of Wales to Cape Horn, to the hindrance of commerce; but from the southern extremity of North America to the northern extremity of South America, is a distance of about 800 miles. The link that binds the two continents together, or, to put it in a more practical way, the barrier that divides the Atlantic coast from the Pacific, is that narrow ridge of land called Central America, and which extends from the southern boundary of Mexico to the southern boundary of Panama. The width of Central America varies from 20 to 400 miles.

The eastern shore of Central America was first visited by Christopher Columbus in 1502, or rather discovered, for he merely passed along it. The natives and his crew were agreed in opposition to landing. Twenty-one years later Cortez sent Pedro Alvarado to explore and conquer the west coast. He was absent two years. Almost incredible, yet hardly too extravagant, stories were told by the Aztecs and other natives of the abundance of gold and silver in that region, and the splendor of the civilization existing there. Relics dug from the ruins of Central America in our own day attest the essential correctness of the representations made. Gold and silver are found in many localities, and some mines are in operation, but the climate is so hot and the air is so fetid, the government so insecure and the people so indolent, that no considerable amount of mining is done. The only industry of any account, apart from transportation, is lumbering. The dense forests contain mahogany, logwood, lignum-vitæ, pimento, sarsaparilla, vanilla, black balsam, and other trees valuable for bark, timber or gum. There are said to be not less than ninety-seven varieties of poisonous trees in that region fatal to animal life, but they are valuable for drugs. The sparce population consists, it is estimated, of one-twelfth whites, four-twelfths mixed races, and seven-twelfths Indians. The country is mountainous, and the mountains volcanic. There are several lakes, Nicaragua being the chief. Its outlet, the San Juan, is the only considerable river of Central America.

Politically there are five Central American republics and one European dependency, British Honduras. These republics are: Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. In 1823 the Spanish yoke was thrown off. The division of the country into districts and states having no unity occurred about ten years later.

The present constitution of Gautemala was adopted in 1859. Santiago de Guatemala is the capital. It has a population of 45,000. Guatemala de Cabelleros, once the capital, had a population of 60,000, but earthquake and fire nearly destroyed it in 1773, and it now has only about one-third of that population. The republic of Honduras is almost wholly peopled by Indians. Its capital is the little town of Comayagua, on the Pacific coast. San Salvador has for its capital the city of the same name, founded by Pedro Alvarado in 1528, or rather, it did have, until repeated earthquakes and volcanic eruptions compelled a change of site. The city of San Salvador was visited by destructive earthquakes and volcanic eruptions in 1873. The principal seaport is La Libertad, distant fifteen miles from the capital. The Indians of that state are more industrious than those of any other part of Central America. Indigo is their chief article of export.

Nicaragua has a population estimated at 350,000. Their chief occupation is cattle raising. The capital, Managua, is built on the slope of an active volcano. The old capital, Leon, ten miles from the Pacific coast, was surrounded by five active volcanos. Costa Rica is supposed to have a population of little less than 200,000 souls. The Spanish portion of the population clusters about the capital, San Jose, which has a population of 26,000. Costa Rica is trying to connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans by a railroad running from Alajuela to Limon, a distance of 114 miles. That portion of the line from Alajuela to Cartago (42 miles) was finished early in 1873. Only a very little more work was done until 1879, when construction was resumed. Like all the rest of Central America, Costa Rica abounds in volcanoes.



VIEW OF PANAMA.

British Honduras has a population of about 25,000, and is hardly more than a naval station, kept up for the convenience of the British Empire and to strengthen Great Britain's supremacy on the high seas of the world.

Panama is, politically speaking, a part of South America, one of the states of the United States of Colombia being the Isthmus of Panama (formerly Darien); but in reality is a part of the connecting link between the two continents. It has an area of 29,756 square miles and a population of 175,000 souls. It varies in width from 30 to 70 miles. Its chief feature is the Panama railroad, extending from Aspinwall on the Atlantic coast to the city of Panama on the Pacific coast. It was built at tremendous cost, $500,000 a mile, and the loss of life from the unwholesomeness of the climate was enormous. That railroad is one of the great triumphs of modern enterprise. Citizens of the United States projected and accomplished the work. Great numbers of Chinamen were employed in the construction. The property has always been a very profitable investment. It was recently purchased by the company organized by M. de Lesseps to construct a ship canal across the Isthmus of Panama, one of the most gigantic and important undertakings of the nineteenth century. The country is rocky and mountainous on the Atlantic or Caribbean side, and swampy on the Pacific side. The soil is all too productive. Its yield of tropical plants is so very luxurious that the decay incident thereto poisons the atmosphere. The town of Panama has a population of about 10,000, Aspinwall of 4,000. The Panama railroad was completed in 1855. With the Panama ship canal completed (and it is a moral certainty that it will be) engineering skill and enterprise will have supplied to the commerce of the world the shortest passage to the Indies, which Columbus sought, the search for which opened to Europe a new world.

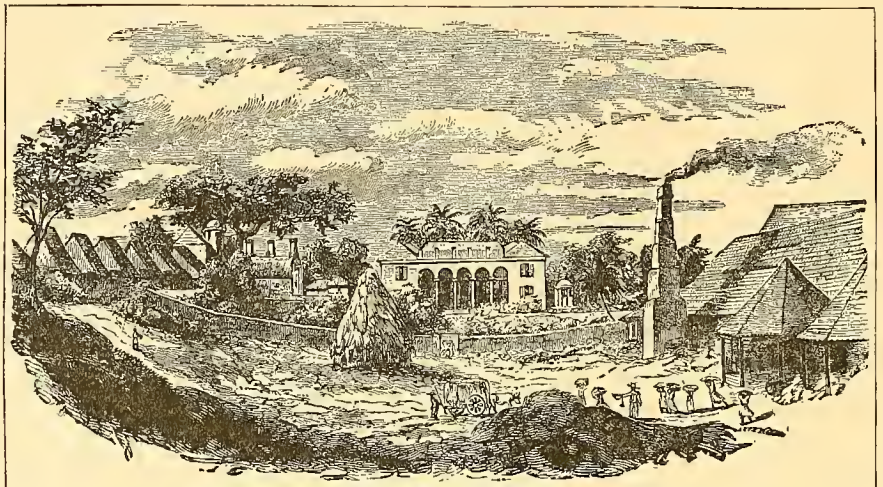
COLUMBUS DISCOVERING SAN SALVADOR.

The West Indies is the general designation of the archipelago which breaks the watery monotony of the Caribbean sea, which is that portion of the Atlantic Ocean extending from the southern extremity of the peninsula of Florida to the northern coast of Venezuela. It consists of four groups of islands, the Bahama Islands, the Greater Antilles, the Virgin Islands, and the Lesser Antilles.

The Bahamas have, all told, only about 40,000 inhabitants, and a total area variously estimated at from 3,000 to 5,000 square miles. This group consists of 12 islands, 661 keys, 2,387 reefs and cliffs, and 3,060 islets. The larger islands include the Grand Bahama, San Salvador and New Providence. The latter contains Nassau, the capital. San Salvador is supposed to be the first land discovered by Columbus. Waling's Island lays some claim to that distinction. The aborigines were early exterminated by the Spaniards. The English possession of the Bahamas dates from 1629. These islands furnish for export canella, arrowroot, sponges, salt, conch-shells, eleuthera bark, and pineapples. The soil and climate are especially adapted to raising pineapple plants.

The term Antilles is often applied to all the West Indies except the Bahamas. The Greater Antilles comprise the four large islands, Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica and Porto Rico.

Cuba and Porto Rico are the remaining American possessions of Spain of any considerable importance. The latter island has an area of 3,530 square miles and a population of about 600,000, one-half white, one-third Creole, and the rest negroes. The island produces a great deal of sugar, some coffee, tobacco, cotton and cattle. It has a little mineral wealth, gold, copper, iron, lead, coal and rock-salt. Its capital is also called Porto Rico. Cuba has an area of 43,220 square miles. It entire annual production is estimated in value at $126,000,000, mostly sugar and tobacco. The Cuban census of 1877 gave the population as follows: whites, 764,164; free negroes, 3,444,050; slaves, 227,902; Chinese, 58,400.



A SUGAR ESTATE, CUBA.

Columbus gave to Cuba the name of Juana; the original name, however, finally prevailed. The first Spanish colony was established in 1511. The Captain-General who ruled the colony in its infancy, Hernando, was a monster of cruel rapacity. By 1553 the native population had been nearly exterminated by their inhuman taskmasters, who then resorted to the African slave trade to supply the labor market with slaves. In 1524 the French destroyed Havana, and again twenty years later, but they gained no substantial advantage thereby. In 1624 the Dutch took it. Later in the same century piratical marauders, flying no national flag, seriously ravaged the coast. In 1762 the English took Havana, restoring it, however, the next year in exchange for Florida. Spain has always shown a desperate resolution to maintain possession of Cuba. The United States, prior to the abolition of slavery, coveted it, offering Spain at one time $100,000,000 for it. That was in 1848. Six years later an attempt was made to intimidate the government at Madrid. Three American ministers-plentipotentiary, Messrs. Buchanan, Mason and Soulé, met and went through the solemn farce of issuing the Ostend manifesto, claiming for the United States the right to take possession of the island if Spain persisted in refusing to sell it. This game of bluff failing, the project of annexation was abandoned.

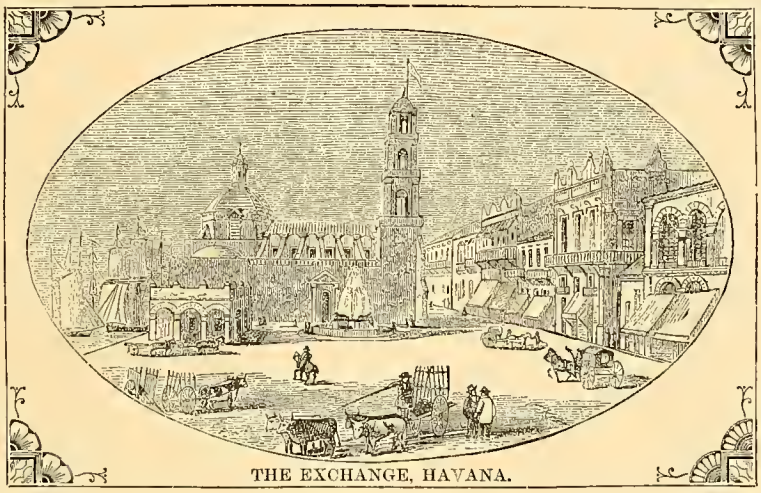
For a long time prior to the abolition of the African slave trade (1845), Cuba was the center of an immense traffic in fresh supplies of negroes from the continent of Africa. The South American colonies largely depended upon Cuba for servants, until their independence and emancipation, and a great many were clandestinely brought to the United States by way of Cuba. Several insurrections occurred that were crushed out with great cruelty.

The most resolute effort to obtain independence was begun in 1868. The leader of the movement was Manuel Carlos Cespedes, afterwards elected President of the "Republic," or abortive government set up by the insurgents. The war was maintained for several years, seriously interfering with the prosperity of the island and resulting in failure.

Havana is not only the chief city of the West Indies, as well as the capital of Cuba, but it is one of the best known centers of commerce in the world. It has a most excellent harbor, and a population of over 200,000 souls. Of the city, a recent traveler says, "The most prominent among the public buildings are the opera house, one of the largest in the world; the cathedral, built in 1724 and containing the ashes of Christopher Columbus, transferred hither from St. Domingo in 1796; the palace of the Governor-General, with apartments for the different

government officers. None of the buildings, however, are very remarkable; but with respect to its public parks and promenades, Havana perhaps surpasses all other cities in the world, the Plaza de Armas, the Alameda de Paula, the Parque de Isabel and the Paseo de Tacon being the more prominent."

Hayti is second only to Cuba, from which it is separated by the Windward Passage. It measures, from east to west, 405 miles, and its greatest width is 165 miles, comprising an area of 28,000 square miles, inclusive of a few contiguous islets. The soil is very rich and productive. Coffee, sugar and tobacco are raised in large quantities. The island is divided into two states, only the western portion being known, politically, as Hayti. The eastern part is San Domingo.



THE EXCHANGE, HAVANA.

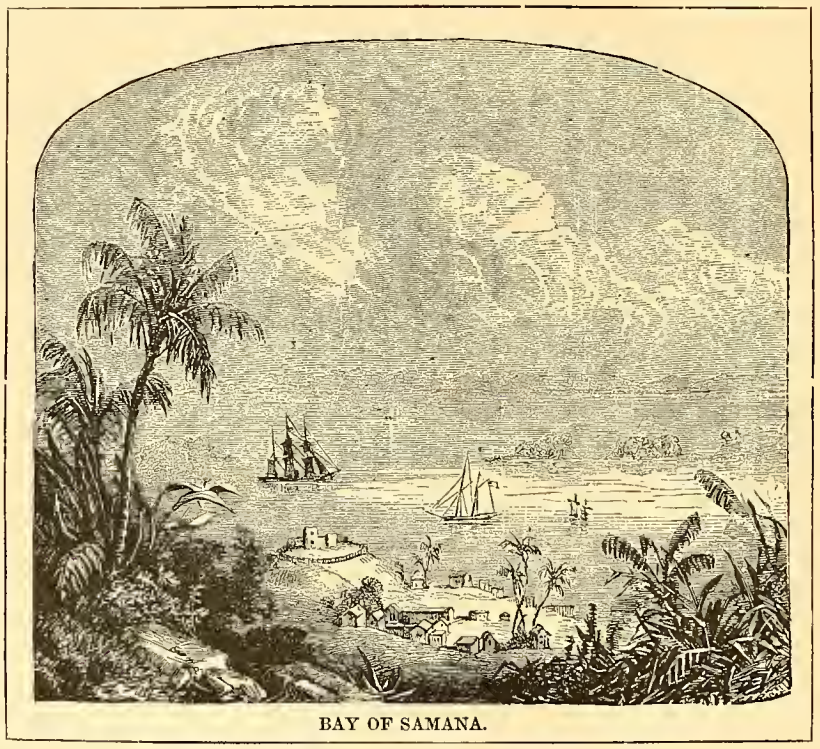
The latter is Spanish, so far as concerns its European elements, the former French. Hayti was the second American place visited by Columbus. It has the distinction of being the part of the New World first settled by white men, receiving the appropriate name of Hispaniola. The mines of the island were poor as compared with those subsequently found in Mexico and Peru, but rich as compared with any at that time known to the Spaniards, and they were very eager in their development. The native population, estimated at 2,000,000, was enslaved and soon literally used up and worn out by excessive labor. Like all the West India aborigines they were unaccustomed to hard work and soon succumbed beneath the lash of cruel taskmasters. Negro slavery was introduced in Hayti in 1522. Pedro, son of Christopher Columbus, was viceroy at the time, and it was on his property that the first consignment of African slaves was set at work. By 1711 the aborigines had dwindled to about 20,000. There are said to be a few of their descendants still surviving in the mountains of the island.

The discoveries of Mexico and Peru were almost ruinous to Hispaniola. The population shrank to utter insignificance. But in 1630 a new era dawned upon the island. A French settlement was formed in the northern part of it and flourished rapidly. There was considerable trouble between the two nationalities, but in 1699 by the treaty of Ryswick Spain ceded the western part of the island to France. The French proceeded to develop the agricultural wealth of the country, sugar, coffee and other tropical productions. Some idea of the growth of San Domingo may be formed from the fact that in the year 1790, 1,400 vessels and 30,000 men were employed in the commerce between France and St. Domique, as it is sometimes given.

The French revolution spread in its ideas to Hayti and had a somewhat unique outgrowth. The wealth of the country was not confined to the white people, but all political rights were. Besides the semi-French population and the slaves there had grown up a third class, the Mulattoes, possessing frequently extensive plantations. They demanded the extension to themselves of the principles of universal brotherhood. Civil war resulted. The Spaniards of the east side of the island took advantage of the disturbed state of things to make encroachments, and so did English adventurers. The slaves rose in insurrection, and the condition of affairs was simply desperate. In 1791 the demands of the Mulattoes were complied with, and two years later the slaves were emancipated. Commissioners from France decided that no other course could be taken.

This Haytian complication brought into prominence that very remarkable man, Toussaint L' Onverture, an African of unmixed blood. He was born in the island in 1743. His father was a native of Africa, the son of a chief. Toussaint was favored

with a kind master who taught him to read and write. In the servile insurrection of 1791 and the massacre attending it he was passive, except to protect his master and his family; but a few years later he appears in the negro army, first as a surgeon and then as a general. In 1795 he rendered eminent service as a soldier. When the French government granted liberty to the slaves he threw his influence in favor of France as against Spain and England. He took the lead in expelling both the Spanish and the English intruders. He showed a wonderful genius for war, also for civil affairs. The Mulattoes, the freedmen, the French and the other foreigners came to recognize him as the supreme authority in every thing. In 1800 he took possession of the entire island in the name of the French Directory. He was made president for life. The whole island was at peace and prosperous under him. But Napoleon, then consul of France, proposed to restore the old state of affairs, including the re-establishment of slavery. He sent Leclerc with 66 vessels of war and 30,000 soldiers to carry out this purpose. They arrived on the island early in 1802. Toussaint issued a proclamation declaring loyalty to France but death to the invaders. Leclerc in turn denounced him as an outlaw. The forces of the island were utterly inadequate to the resistance. Toussaint retired to the mountains, but was induced to surrender on the promise of personal immunity and the continued freedom of the negroes. That pledge was shamefully broken. He was carried to France in irons, and died a prisoner in the castle of Joux, the victim of treachery and cruelty, including starvation. The treatment of this great man was one of the foulest blots upon the name of Napoleon, and a supreme calamity to Hayti. It seemed to be on the highway to a large prosperity, but with Toussaint's fall it withered and shriveled.



BAY OF SAMANA.

Notwithstanding the fate of L'Ouverture, the French had to abandon the idea of re-enslaving the negro. In all the world's history no act of emancipation, once effective, has been practically and permanently recalled. Failing in this, the army left the island in 1804, and San Domingo declared itself a free and independent republic. The first president, Dessalines, who had proved a worthy successor to Toussaint in the field, was utterly unfitted for the trust reposed in him. He attempted to make himself emperor of all Hayti. Two years later he was assassinated, but not until after the island had been drenched in blood and the industries terribly crippled. With his death the eastern part of the island returned to Spanish rule. Anarchy prevailed until 1822, when Boyer united the entire island under one government.

For twenty years he remained in power. At the expiration of that period he was banished and the island once more divided. It remained so until 1849, when Soulouque, a freedman who had acquired some prominence in the civil wars which had desolated the island, and had been elected president of Hayti in 1847, declared himself emperor of the

entire island. His pretentions were successfully resisted by the San Domingans under the lead of Santana, who from 1844 to 1861 was at the head of public affairs in San Domingo, much of the time as president. In 1855 Santana put an effectual termination by overwhelming superiority in the field, to the pretensions of the Haytian rival. Santana died in 1864; Soulouque in 1867. Between them what little prosperity the island had previously enjoyed was destroyed. A land which, a century ago, contributed largely to the wealth of the world is now a mere cipher. The only redeeming feature, or consolation, is that the bulk of the people are now crudely happy, while under the old regime they were excruciatingly miserable.

During his first presidential term General Grant was very desirous of annexing San Domingo to the United States. He exerted all his influence to secure its annexation. Everything was arranged, and it was only necessary for the senate of the United States to concur. But that concurrence could not be secured. Senator Charles Sumner was as warmly opposed to it as the president was in favor of it. The controversy involved the two great men in personal unpleasantness. Mr. Sumner carried his point, but in punishment therefor the friends of the admistration deposed him from the chairmanship of the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs, a position which he had long filled with pre-eminent ability. An attempt to annex the small West Indian island of St. Thomas was also defeated. The sentiment of the United States was and is averse to the acquisition of any outlying southern territory.

Jamaica, with an area of 4,473 square miles and a population of 500,000, is one of the Antilles and a colonial possession of Great Britain. It produces in large quantities sugar and coffee. Much of the former is distilled into rum before exportation. This island was visited by Columbus and settled by the Spaniards in 1509. The English captured it in 1655. For a century and a half it was managed as one vast plantation, the supply of slaves being kept up by importations from Africa. The slave trade was abolished in 1807, and slavery itself in 1833. The amount of sugar and coffee raised was very greatly reduced by emancipation. It is governed by a captain-general appointed by the crown. The capital is Kingston.

The Lesser Antilles are divided into two groups, the Windward or South Carribee Islands, and the Leeward or North Carribee Islands. The former are Barbadoes, Granada, the Grenadines, Martinique, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Trinidad and Tobago. They are all British possessions, except Martinique, which belongs to France. The Leeward Islands are Anguilla, Antigua, Barbuda, Deseada, Dominica, Gaudaloupe, Marie Galante, Montserrat Nevis, Saba, St. Bartholomew, St. Christopher, St. Eustacius, St. Martin, Santa Cruz, and a group of still smaller islands called the Virgin Islands. All told, they are trivial in importance. Their ownership is divided between England, France, Sweden, Denmark, Holland and Spain, the possessions of the latter, outside of Cuba and Porto Rico, being utterly insignificant. The Danish islands are St. Thomas, St. John and St. Croix. These small islands are almost worthless, except as they may be useful as coaling stations and for other naval purposes.

The most eastern of these islands are the Barbadoes. That term was often used, in colonial times, as applying to all the British possessions in the West Indies. Slavery was abolished within the British possessions about the same time that the Spanish states became independent and freed their slaves. At one time New England traded extensively in slaves, rum and molasses with the British portion of those tropical islands, especially the two latter articles. Since the restrictions of trade were removed the principal commercial intercourse of this country and the world generally with those immmerable islands is carried on with Cuba at its business and political capital, Havana, and the chief article of trade is the cigar. Many parts of the tropical world produce sugar, coffee, and even tobacco, but the flavor of the Cuban tobacco-leaf is peculiar, and preferred to that of any other.

In Central America and the West Indies there are only two seasons of the year, instead of four, wet and dry. During the cooler months it rains a great deal, but when the sun is more vertical rain hardly ever falls; an earthquake or a hurricane is more to be expected than a thunderstorm.

It may be added here that the waters of the Caribbean sea, flowing from it by an ocean current into the Gulf of Mexico, find egress only through the narrow passage between the Bahamas and Florida, and thus is formed that incalculably important and mighty ocean river, the Gulf-Stream.

The Bermudas is a term suggestive of a group of islets having far more prominence than importance. They lie about 620 miles off Cape Hatteras, the nearest land. Their number is 400, their area only 24 square miles and their population only about ten thousand. Juan Bermudez discovered them in 1522. The temperature is always mild and the verdure perpetual. The English have some strong batteries on the largest isle of the group. The only thing for which the Bermudas are famous is onions, which are exported in large quantities.

The Azores, situated in the North Atlantic about 500 miles west of Portugal, are a group of islands which have been under Portuguese rule ever since 1449. For nearly half a century they were the extreme western limit of the known world. Their area is 1149 square miles, population about 250,000. There are three groups, the Flores and Corvo forming one; Terceira, St. George, Pico, Fayal and Graciosa a second, and St. Michael and St. Mary the third. The chief exports are wine, brandy and oranges. The people are simple, superstitious and uninteresting.

Leaving the Atlantic and visiting the Pacific, the important group is the Sandwich or Hawaiian Islands. These islands were discovered by the Spanish in the 16th century, but they were soon lost sight of. They may be said to have first become a part of the world actual when visited by that great English navigator, Captain Cook, in 1778, who was killed by the natives the following year. The people were indeed barbarians, but not downright savages. Something approaching a civilization was found. A system of government strongly resembling medieval feudalism prevailed, with several rulers of about equal dignity, each independent and sovereign. But in the year 1790, Kamehameha extended his sway to all Hawaii. When he died the entire group formed one kingdom. In 1819 a civil war occurred which resulted, among other things, in the destruction of the idols of popular worship. Very soon after seven American missionaries, with their wives, came among them to make known to them the Gospel of Christ. They came at a very opportune time. The ground was prepared for the seed sown, and in an almost incredibly short time the Hawaiians became Christians. In 1825 the Ten Commandments were adopted and formally made a part of the code of the country. Honolulu became the capital. In 1829 the United States recognized the government of the Hawaiian Islands as a treaty power, and in 1843 and 1844 that goverment received full and general recognition as a nation.

Captain Cook estimated the population at 400,000, but by the last census it had fallen to about 57,000. Commercial intercourse proved terribly destructive to life. The people on the coast contracted diseases from contact with sailors which killed them off with unprecedented rapidity. Sugar raising is the chief industry, and the greater part of the product is exported to San Francisco. All these twelve islands, of which Hawaii is the chief, are volcanic. There are two active volcanoes on Hawaii—Kilauea and Mauna Loa.

The Fiji Islands constitute a group in the South Pacific Ocean numbering about 209, with a population estimated at 200,000. The first European to visit them was the Dutch navigator, Tasman, in 1643. There was no full exploration until two centuries later, when an American by the name of Wilkes visited them. There are only two islands of any considerable magnitude, Viti Levu and Vanua Levu. The people were savages of the most pronounced type, but the missionaries of the cross have met with great success there. At least one-half the population habitually attend Christian service on the Sabbath.

Having now visited the more interesting Isles of the Sea, it is time to return to the American continent and trace from many small beginnings to its present magnificence, that grandest republic of all the ages—the United States.

NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS.

CHAPTER LXXV.

THE SUBJECT IN HAND—ORIGIN OF THE INDIAN RACE AND THE NAME—MOUNDS AND THE EXTINCT MOUND BUILDERS—THE LAND OF THE PUEBLOS—CLIFF HOUSES—CAVE DWELLERS—THE NATIONS AND TRIBES ONCE ON THE ATLANTIC COAST—TESTIMONY OF TRUMBULL—RESERVATIONS—THE INDIAN BUREAU—INDIAN TERRITORY—WAMPUM—INDIAN OPPORTUNITIES AND PROSPECTS—THE ABORIGINAL PROBLEM—RELATION OF THE INDIAN TO THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

BETWEEN the Republic of Mexico and the British dependency of Canada is situate the most important nation on the globe, viewed from the standpoint of the actual. Its history covers a comparatively short period, but already it ranks with the great powers of the earth, and its growth is absolutely unprecedented. The United States can best be studied and understood by viewing it from a variety of standpoints, and first of all naturally from the aboriginal point of view.

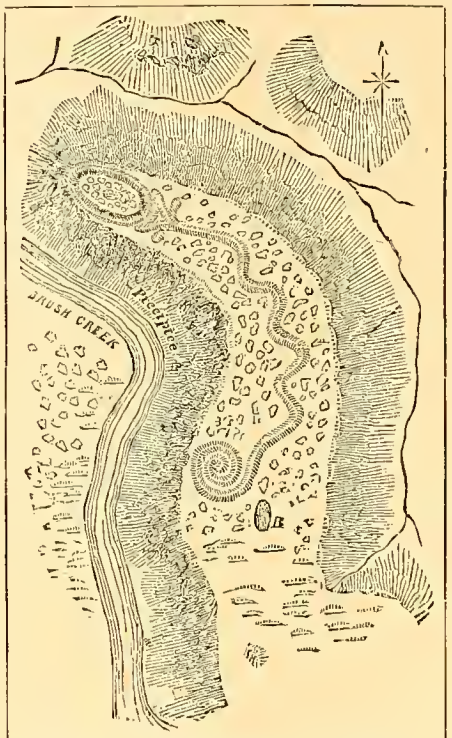
We use the term Indian to designate all the peoples and tribes found by Europeans on this continent, and whose occupancy of the soil antedates history. It was originally a misnomer, given from the misapprehension that the islands in the Caribbean sea were a part of the country in and about the Indian Ocean of the far East. Misnomer though it be, *Indians* is the designation of all prehistoric Americans.

Many wild notions have been entertained relative to the origin of the Indians. Some have tried to trace them to the "Lost Ten Tribes" of Israel, others to the "Shepherd Kings" who were expelled from Egypt some four chiliads ago. All such conjectures are preposterous. As well try to trace the origin of tobacco or wheat. It would be quite possible for the inhabitants of northern Asia or northern Europe, especially the former, to make their way from island to island to the western hemisphere, but in the sands of time are no footprints. Behring's Strait and the Aleutian Islands, if they have a secret, keep it well.

The Indian found upon the Atlantic coast, from Labrador to Buenos Ayres, was a mere savage, somewhat interesting as a novelty, but to all intents and purposes a crude barbarian like the prehistoric man set forth in our third chapter. In the interior and the west, however, he was found to have done some remarkable things. There were and still are vast mounds which attest the presence, in a buried past, of a people possessing some real civilization. Men of science have been richly rewarded for excavating these earthworks. Regular and exact are they, proving capacity for calculation and execution above the level of barbarism. Indeed, it is evident that the Mound-builders understood somewhat the principles of geometry. They may have had their Archimedes or Euclid. If they had only had

a Cadmus to give them letters, they might have figured among the historical peoples. There is one mound in the Miami valley, Ohio, laid out in the form of a huge snake. Knives and other implements, also pottery, have been found, all uncouth and primitive, leaving no doubt that the continent was once occupied by a people who "knew enough to know" that by softening metal with fire it could be made useful, and that clay could be moistened, fashioned and baked with equally good results.

It is thought probable that the Aztecs of Mexico are descended from the Mound-builders, and that the Indian, as he was found roaming the forests by the Europeans who settled this country and made it a part of the civilized world, was himself an interloper, and not really the aboriginal American. But this is matter of conjecture. We only know that the extent and magnitude of these mounds serve as an index-finger pointing to a history never to be written of a people who had ceased to inhabit the country long before the advent of the white man, or if still the same, changed sadly in character, and practically extinct.



GREAT SERPENT, ADAMS CO., OHIO.

Of the Canadian Indians, including the Esquimaux, enough has been said in previous chapters, but Indian archæology and present facts unite in presenting other aborigines quite as interesting and civilized as the Mound-builders, known as Cave-dwellers and Cliff-dwellers.

The land of the Mound-builders is now under cultivation, peopled by a race noted for what it can do in the line of utility, but the land of the Cave and Cliff dwellers is still, for the most part, undisturbed by white men. That land extends over a large part of Colorado, Utah, Arizona and New Mexico. That vast region is inconceivably rich in precious metals, yields a growth of very nutritious grasses for buffaloes, cattle and sheep. It may be said to be at once the treasure-house and the pasture of the United States. From the standpoint of productive value it is those two and no more. But to the student of the curious it is interesting as the home of a more remarkable people, apparently, than the Mound-builders.

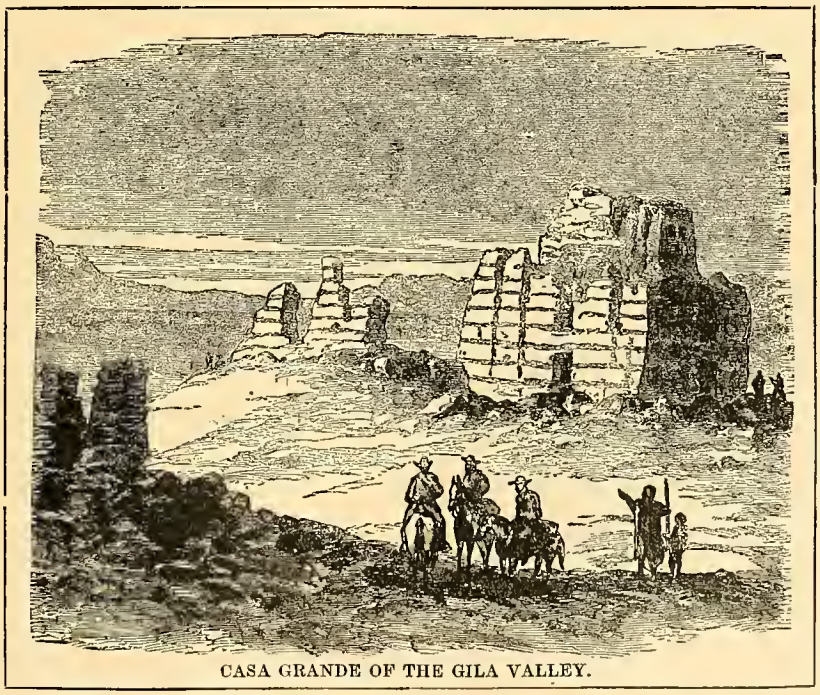
The architectural remains and attestations of a decayed civilization in the Rocky Mountains are pueblos, casa grandes, cave-houses and cliff-houses. A pueblo is sometimes inhabited, but often a deserted village. The pueblo structures are made of stone, quite large, sometimes two or three stories in height. Within, the building is divided into numerous apartments, as many as a thousand in some instances. South of the pueblos are found casa grandes, differing from the other class of structure in material, rather than size or object. They were made of mud, or *adobe*. For the most part these are now shapeless ruins.

Cliff-houses are another highly interesting feature of the antiquities of the interior of the United States. A writer who was on the ground and wrote from actual observation, says in describing one of these cliff-houses, "Over six hundred feet from the bottom of the cañon, in a niche in the wall, is a fine specimen of cliff-dwellings. Five hundred feet of the ascent to this aerial dwelling was comparatively easy, but a hundred feet of almost perpendicular wall confronted the party, up which they could never have climbed but for the fact that they found a series of steps cut in the face of the rock leading up to the ledge upon which the house was built. This ledge was ten feet wide by twenty feet in length, with a vertical space between it and the overhanging rock of fifteen feet. The house occupied only half this space, the remainder having been used as an esplanade, and once was inclosed by a balustrade resting on abutments built partly upon the sloping face of the precipice below. The house was but twelve feet high and two-storied. Though the walls

did not reach up to the rock above, it is uncertain whether it ever had any other roof. The ground plan showed a front room of six by nine feet in dimensions, in the rear of which were two smaller rooms, each measuring five by seven feet. The left-hand room projected along the cliff beyond the front room in the form of an L. The rock of the cliff served as the rear wall of the house. The cedar beams upon which the upper floor rested had nearly all disappeared.

ESQUIMAUX.

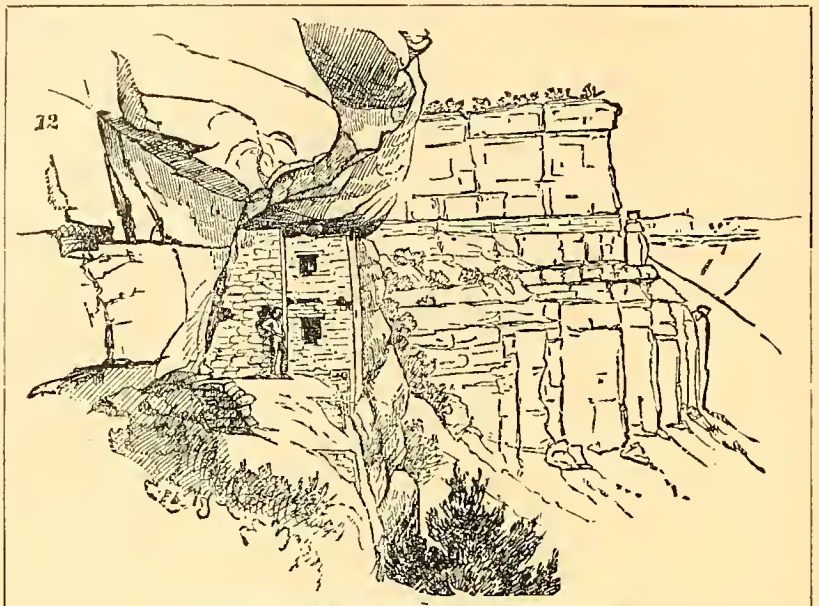
"The door opening upon the esplanade was but twenty by thirty inches in size, while a window in the same story was but twelve inches square. A window in the upper story which commands an extended view down the cañon corresponds in dimensions and position with the door below. The lintels of the window were small, straight cedar sticks laid close together, upon which the stones rested. Opposite this window was another and smaller one, opening into a semi-circular cistern, formed by a wall inclosing the angle formed by the side wall of the house against the rock, and holding about two and a half hogsheads. The bottom of the reservoir was reached by descending on a series of cedar pegs about one foot apart, and leading downward from the window. The workmanship of the structure was of a superior order; the perpendiculars were true ones and the angles carefully squared. The mortar used was of a grayish white color, very compact and adhesive. Some little taste was evinced by the occupants of this human swallow's-nest. The front rooms were plastered smoothly with a thin layer of firm adobe cement, colored a deep maroon, while a white band eight inches wide had been painted around the room at both floor and ceiling. An examination of the immediate vicinity revealed the ruins of half a dozen similar dwellings in the ledges of the cliffs, some of them occupying positions, the inaccessibility of which must ever be a wonder when considered as places of residence for human beings."



CASA GRANDE OF THE GILA VALLEY.

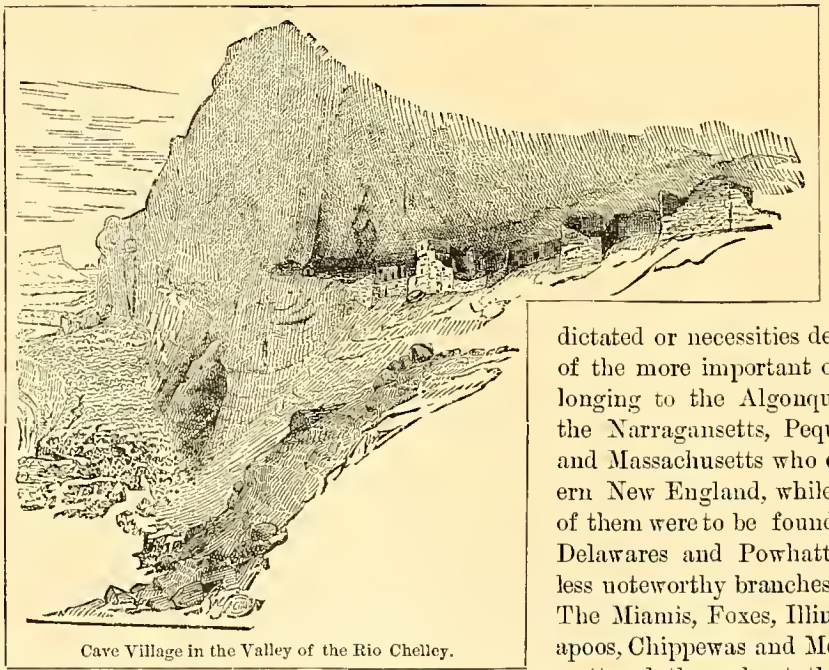
The cave houses of the aboriginal American were substantially similar to the cliff houses, except this, instead of being constructed on a shelf of the cliff, they seem to have been set into openings in the cliffs. Caves a thousand feet above the level of the valley have been found which show evidence of long and populous occupancy. Some cave villages have been found. This class of exploration is still incomplete, but enough is known to justify the conclusion that the older generations of Indians, no doubt the real progenitors of those now there, were far more capable and efficient than their descendants. If not exactly "the degen-

reate sons of noble sires," there is certainly no doubt about the degeneracy.



CLIFF HOUSE IN THE CAÑON OF THE MANCOS.

The reader may desire to be informed how many Indians there probably were on this continent when it was first discovered. There is no way of telling, but the fairest estimate is five millions, one-fifth of the number being within the borders of the United States. Central governments and the civilization implied, were confined to Peru and Mexico, as those terms are used in history, and not in the present restricted sense. According to the classification made by J. Hammond Trumbull and other eminent authorities on this subject, the Indians west of the Rocky Mountains were divided into eight nations, or confederations of tribes, bound loosely together by a vague sense of kinship. They were the Algonquins, Huron-Iroquois, Cherokees, Catawbas, Uchees, Natchez, Mobilians, Dakotas or Sioux. The vast section of country extending from Pennsylvania, Virginia, Delaware and New Jersey, through Southeastern New York, along the coast of the Atlantic off New England, thence inland by the St. Lawrence to the lake region, embracing the area of the states of Illinois, Indiana, and sections of Tennessee and Kentucky, formed the hunting-grounds of the Algonquins. This distinct nation was divided into numerous tribes, the most of which were decidedly nomadic, moving from one section of their vast territory to another, as their fancies dictated or necessities demanded. Some of the more important of the tribes belonging to the Algonquin nation were the Narragansetts, Pequots, Mohegans and Massachusetts who occupied Southern New England, while further south of them were to be found the Shawnees, Delawares and Powhattans, and some less noteworthy branches of the nation. The Miamis, Foxes, Illinois, Sacs, Kickapoos, Chippewas and Menominees, were scattered throughout the West, and in the section of country bordering upon the great



Cave Village in the Valley of the Rio Chelley.

lakes. The Montagnais inhabited a region on the banks of the St. Lawrence. They were objects of great interest to the Jesuit priests of Quebec, who, with a true missionary spirit, sought their rude habitations in winter, with a view of bringing them within the pale of the church. The Algonquin nation gave birth to many noted warriors who left records long remembered by the early settlers of the country. Of these may be named Massasoit, King Philip, Powhatan, Pontiac, Blackhawk and Tecumseh.

BLACKHAWK

In the year 1600, the Algonquins were estimated to number nearly two hundred and fifty thousand.

KING PHILIP.

The Indians of the United States are gradually being concentrated upon reservations, and it will not be very many years before every Indian will be obliged to adopt civilization or remove to and abide upon his reservation. Not that a red man is imprisoned and cannot go beyond certain territorial limits in his individual capacity. Not that at all. But simply the roving about of predatory bands cannot be allowed where white folks live. The office of Commissioner of Indian Affairs was created by congress in 1832, and is in charge of the bureau of Indian Affairs, a branch of the Department of the Interior. It is his duty to superintend the distribution of the appropriations which congress makes yearly for the Indians, who are regarded as "wards of the government." There are numerous agencies scattered over the western country, subject to the Indian Commissioner. During a part of General Grant's term, a real Indian, Captain Parker, held this office, but the service is, and with this exception always has been, altogether in the hands of the whites. The aim is to protect the pioneers from depredations and enable the Indians themselves to evade the fundamental law that "he who will not work shall not eat." Some of these agencies and reservations are within the limits of states, or territories which will become states, but it is evident that before many years all settlements of Indians will be concentrated in Indian Territory.

This fair portion of our continent, bordering on Texas, Kansas, Arkansas, Colorado and Missouri, contains an area of about 70,000 square miles. The policy of removing the tribes of Indians to a territory of their own originated in 1834. At first it was somewhat vague in conception and legislative definition, but this policy has assumed precision at last, and now the United States stands ready to guard and protect "the nation," as Indian territory is popularly called, from intruding whites. The principal tribes there are Cherokees, Chicasaws, Choctaws, Creeks, Quapaws, Seminoles and Poncas. The entire population is not far from 100,000. A good deal of corn and wheat are annually raised, and large herds of cattle pastured. There are schools among them and newspapers. It is not believed that the population is decreasing. The old idea of ultimate Indian extinction is unfounded.

The general characteristics of the Indian are, a copper-colored skin ; straight black hair ; high cheek bones ; a tall, erect form ; stolidity and an incorrigible aversion to work. Their speech is guttural, rasping and disagreeable. Many dialects there are, as a matter of course, among a people widely scattered, unsocial, and having nothing approaching a literature nearer than a few rude pictures on birch-bark. Some claim that there were at least ten distinct languages spoken in this country by the primitive natives. There may have been a hundred. John Eliot, the one Englishman who truly and sincerely came to America early in the seventeenth century to convert the heathen, faithfully mastered the language of the Indians about him in Massachusetts. With infinite pains he translated the Bible into it, thinking he had done for the Indians much the same service that Wycliffe had done for the English. The dreary difficulties of his mighty task were rendered recreative by the anticipation of a redeemed people. But a few generations passed and nothing was left to attest the wisdom of his goodness. Indians are numerous enough, in the far West, but it has been a long, long time since any "noble red man" could read that curiosity of literature, or understand it if read to him, however accurate the pronunciation.

A great deal of sentimental folly has been wasted upon the Indian. He had an infinitely better chance to become civilized than the negro had, but he would not become a part of the industry of the country. A little corn and tobacco would he raise,

and that is all. In the field of American production he was, and still persists in being, a mere thistle, fond of the baubles and hurtful inventions of civilized life, without accepting anything which is the just pride of progressive humanity. The skin of beasts, a wigwam, war paint, bow and arrow, tomahawk and scalping-knife are still the Indian's measure of improvement. In the midst of a most productive continent the aboriginal American is a constitutional pauper, supported by annuities, and self-excluded from participation in the events of the day. Originally sea-shells somewhat carved and fashioned, constituted the Indian's only object of trade or standard of values. Wampum, as those shells were called, was both commerce and coin. Their stone hatchets, clay kettles, baskets, fish-nets, corn, with a few beans and squashes added, might be prized, but there was no traffic in them. Sometimes copper or pipe-stone was exchanged for wampum. Now that the white man feeds and clothes him, the Indian will barter the skins of the beasts of the chase for nothing else so readily as for alcohol.

The Indian proper has a certain individuality, defying change which excites some admiration. He worships God as a Great Spirit, accepts the inevitable with stoical heroism, and if he does fight in ambush and scalp his victim, he is not ungrateful. Revenge is the sweetest bread an Indian ever tasted, but many instances could be given of kindness rendered at great peril to repay kindness. The Indian has some sense of justice; none at all of mercy. He hopes at death to enter "the happy hunting grounds" of the spirit land, but he expects to be welcomed to heaven and made glad with the smiles of the blessed in proportion as he was "a mighty man of valor." The works mete for repentance, according to the Indian's religion, are the scalps of enemies.

History records numerous instances of the displacement of one people by another. From the Red Sea to the British channel the march of empire was over the road of ruthless usurpation. The new comers, from the Jordan to the Thames, assumed that the original occupants had no rights which the invaders were bound to respect. It is true that in this country the aborigines have been crowded on and off a good many reservations, and been frequently cheated by dishonest agents—sometimes cruelly murdered; but the very fact of reservations, agents, and annuities attests the exceptional humanity of the United States government. As compared with the record of any other people, Jew or gentile, ours may justly boast a century of honor. It is not a pioneer prejudice, but an undeniable fact, that the Indian is the wild partridge of humanity. The negro did his best to acquire civilization, and despite the most persistent skepticism and hostility, rose to the dignity of American sovereignty. There was never a time when this country would not have gladly taken the Indian by the hand if he had shown a disposition to rise. It is "Indians untaxed" who are discriminated against in the suffrage clause of some organic laws. The United States government has tried to solve this Indian problem—for it must be admitted that with all our reservations, missions, and annuities, this country has failed to civilize "the first families" of America in a way ignoring the necessary steps in passing from barbarism to civilization. The attempt has been to convert the hunter into a farmer, without any intermediate stage. The shepherd, as shown in a previous chapter, is the connecting link between following the chase and following the plow. No civilized people ever jumped at one leap from hunting to agriculture. In the earlier days of the republic, the raising of grain and livestock were inseparably blended; but it is not so now. There are vast tracts of land in the far West which are exactly adapted to grazing, and nothing else. Already millions of cattle roam those plains, running together, but none the less individualized property. If the owner is absent, he has a superintendent, and in either case employs "greasers" to assist in the general care of the stock. This life on the plains is half way between buffalo hunting and grain raising. There is no good reason why the attempt should not be made to utilize the Indians as herders, and thus teach them the alphabet of civilization.

Having taken this general survey of the Indian race, it is proposed to enter upon the history of the United States and follow it chronologically, from the earliest settlements to date. It may be added that between Mexico and Canada, nothing of importance to subsequent events occurred before the seventeenth century. But from the time the first English colony was established in North America the Indian became of secondary and rapidly lessening importance.

EARLY COLONIAL UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER LXXVI.

ENGLAND AND ENGLISH AMERICA—SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT AND SIR WALTER RALEIGH—CAPE COD, VIRGINIA AND PLYMOUTH—CAPT. JOHN SMITH AND POCAHONTAS—INTRODUCTION OF SLAVERY AND ENGLISH WIVES—INDIAN WARFARE—LORD CULPEPPER AND THE ROYALISTS—GOV. BERKELEY AND NATHANIEL BACON—MARYLAND AND LORD BALTIMORE—NEW ENGLAND AND CAPT. SMITH—LANDING OF THE PILGRIM FATHERS—THE PILGRIMS IN HOLLAND—GOV. CARVER—MASSASOIT AND CANONICUS—OTHER MASSACHUSETTS SETTLEMENTS—GOVERNORS WINTHROP AND ENDICOTT—HARVARD COLLEGE AND THE PRINTING PRESS—CONNECTICUT AND NEW HAMPSHIRE—RHODE ISLAND AND ROGER WILLIAMS—BOSTON AND QUAKERS—SALEM AND WITCHCRAFT—KING PHILIP'S WAR—NEW ENGLAND BIGOTRY AND THE CHARGE AGAINST ROGER WILLIAMS—OTHER NOTABLE EARLY NEW ENGLANDERS—NEW NETHERLANDS AND HENRY HUDSON—THE PATROONS—DUTCH GOVERNORS—NEW SWEDEN—WILLIAM PENN AND PENNSYLVANIA—THE CAROLINAS AND JOHN LOCKE—THE HUGUENOTS AND SCOTCH—GEORGIA AND OGLETHORPE—WHITEFIELD AND SLAVERY—SPANISH AND FRENCH SETTLEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES—FLORIDA—MISSISSIPPI RIVER AND VALLEY—PERE MARQUETTE AND NEW FRANCE.

IN a certain vague sense it might be said that the United States dates from 1496, when Henry VII. of England commissioned John Cabot to sail to America and establish there a New England. There was already a New Spain, with a New France soon to follow. But that expedition was fruitless. For about a century England seemed to be singularly oblivious of America. The last of the Henrys, his son Edward and daughter Mary, paid no heed to the new world.

The first Englishman to interest himself, thoroughly and to some purpose, in America was Sir Humphrey Gilbert. In 1583 Queen Elizabeth authorized him to form a colony on this continent. He set sail intending to establish a permanent settlement for agriculture and fishing, especially the latter, at or near Newfoundland. His ideal was radically different from that of the Spanish adventurers who had preceded him on this continent. Sir Humphrey was lost at sea. But his melancholy fate did not discourage others from adopting his plan. His half brother, the illustrious Sir Walter Raleigh, took up the mantle of Gilbert, and right royally did he wear it. His patent was granted in 1584. He did not accompany the expedition, but the explorers whom he sent out effected a landing off Pamlico Sound, finding a country far more inviting than either Newfoundland or New Spain. It was named Virginia, in honor of the Virgin Queen. Two attempts were soon after made to found a permanent settlement, both of which proved unavailing.

In 1602 Gosnold discovered and named Cape Cod. The settlement there and then was soon given up. Others came over on exploring expeditions, and the English public became greatly interested in the subject of American colonization. In 1606 James I.

divided the region claimed by England into North and South Virginia, granting the first to the Plymouth Company, and the second to the London Company. Each company attempted to establish a colony, but only the latter was successful, and that success was the first permanent English settlement, not only in Virginia, but America. The fleet was under the command of Christopher Newport. It sailed up the stately James River in 1607, and founded Jamestown.

The colony had a hard struggle, and was saved from ruin by Captain John Smith. On one occasion Smith was captured by the Indians. The chief, Powhatan, condemned him to death but Pocahontas, the daughter of the chief, saved him. At least, it is the story told, and long implicitly believed. It is certain that the daughter was an illustrious personage in the history of Virginia. She visited England, received Christian baptism, married an Englishman, Rolfe, and became the founder of a family which has always been very proud of her.

BUILDING JAMESTOWN.

JOHN SMITH.

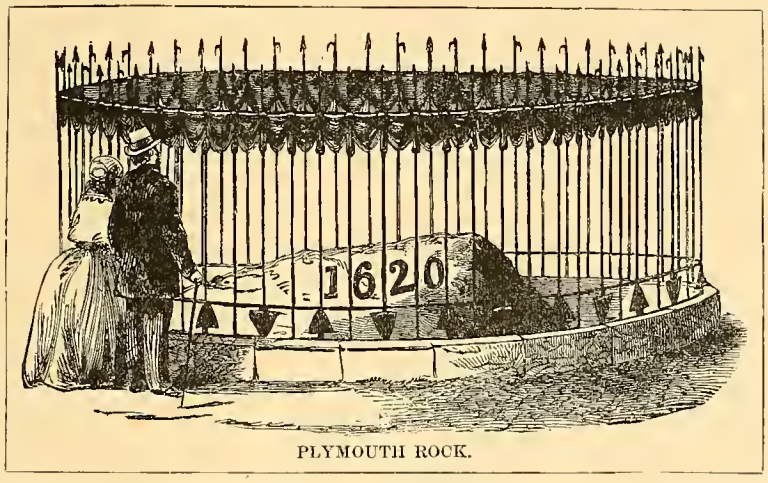
Slavery was introduced into Virginia in 1619. The English never attempted to enslave the natives, but they seemed to have no scruples about dealing in African chattels. The first negroes, twenty in number, were imported by a Dutch trading-vessel. The next year the planters bought a cargo of English wives, one hundred in number, warranted to be respectable. The price paid was 120 pounds of tobacco each, which was the price of her passage. With wives and slaves the colonists were quite established.

The first serious Indian war occurred in 1622. The massacre was very large, and the retaliation still more wholesale. Hostilities were maintained with more or less steadiness, until 1646, when peace was effected, and for the most part ever afterward maintained.

The London Company was dissolved in 1624, upon which Virginia became a province of the crown. It so remained until the year 1673, when Charles II. ceded it for the period of thirty-one years to Lord Culpepper and the Earl of Arlington, names conspicuous in the geography of the present Virginia. But the colony received its greatest impetus when the civil war in England culminated in the defeat of the royalists. Virginia was settled by adherents to the Established Church of England, and many royalists fled thither when the Commonwealth was established. When Charles II. regained the crown (1650) the population of Virginia was 30,000, and several flourishing towns had been established, including Richmond and Williamsburg. The

POCAHONTAS.

first governor appointed by Charles II. was Governor Berkeley. He had been in Virginia before, and the colonists hated him. They had good reason for their hatred. He was a detestable tyrant and opposed to everything progressive. He discouraged education, prohibited the introduction of the printing-press, and tried to conduct the colony as a great tobacco plantation, and nothing else, on substantially the same plan as we have seen that the Dutch have always managed Java. The leader of the opposition to Berkeley was Nathaniel Bacon, the first great patriot of English descent on American soil. He put down an Indian uprising and curbed the arrogance of Berkeley. "Bacon's rebellion" occurred about two centuries ago, and was a presage of the Revolutionary War of one hundred years later.



PLYMOUTH ROCK.

The Virginia Colony can now be left to itself until it came to form a part of the colonial confederation, as the beginnings of the Union might be called. It was not until the French and Indian War, which began in 1653, that this colony had any further experience worthy of note. Year after year it continued to raise tobacco for exportation, and acquire wealth in the business. Gradually a new nationality was growing up beneath the genial sun and the free air of young Virginia, as subsequent events served to prove.

Maryland was carved out of Virginia during the reign of Charles I. In 1629 that sovereign granted the state of Maryland substantially to George Calvert, Lord Baltimore. His lordship was a papist, and designed the establishment of an asylum for persecuted Romanists. So far was he from being a papist of the Spanish type, however, that the colony which he established was the most tolerant of any in the new world. He called the country Maryland in honor of the Virgin Mary. The chief city bears his own name. His colony became a refuge for Episcopalians from New England, for dissenters from Virginia, and other victims of persecution. So many Protestants were there at one time in Maryland, and so ungrateful were they, that they actually expelled all Roman Catholics from the colonial legislature. In 1691 the proprietary charter was revoked and remained in suspense until 1715, when the Calverts regained their vested rights. They continued to govern the colony until the Revolutionary War.

CECIL, SECOND LORD BALTIMORE.

The name New England was given to the region around Cape Cod by Captain John Smith, who tried assiduously in 1614 to plant there an English colony. He was a man of broad views, great foresight, and a keen eye to business.

The first permanent settlement in New England dates from the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers on Plymouth Rock, December 21, 1620.

James I. was then King of England. That narrow and bigoted sovereign was determined to make all his subjects conform to the Established or Episcopal Church. The non-conformists were subject to persecution. To enjoy their religion, a great many of them crossed over to Holland, where the widest latitude was allowed. But that did not suit them. The free and easy Dutch ways were shocking to them. What in the Low Country was thought to be liberty merely, the Puritans looked upon as license, irreligious and immoral. Those who felt that way the deepest returned to their former home, (Plymouth, England) and prepared to sail for the new world. By that time the Virginians had

begun to prosper, and were well known to have found a pleasant land. The Pilgrims took their families with them, sailing in the now famous ship, the Mayflower, in September. It was nearly a three months' voyage, and the weather encountered was more frigid than anything to which they had ever been accustomed, and utterly unlike the mild climate they had expected to find.

EMBARKATION OF THE PILGRIMS.

These Pilgrims had no really valid charter, but before landing they formed themselves into a body politic, or miniature state, electing John Carver first governor of the Plymouth Colony. That first winter was terrible. One-half the little company died, including the governor. But in the spring, when the Mayflower returned to England, none of the Pilgrims went with her.

The Pilgrims were welcomed by the Indians. The latter knew something of the fishermen who had visited the North Atlantic coast in quest of fish, and felt friendly. A powerful chief, Massasoit, negotiated a treaty of peace with the new-comers which continued uninterruptedly for a long period. The chief of the Narragansetts, Canonicus, was disposed to make trouble, but changed his mind. Governor Bradford, who succeeded Carver, understood how to deal with the natives.

Plymouth Colony remained distinct until 1692, when it became mergedwith the settlements about Boston in the Colony of Massachusetts Bay. Of those other settlements one was Salem, established in 1629, with John Endicott as Governor. That colony consisted of two hundred Pilgrims. In 1630 John Winthrop brought over a colony of 1,000, many of whom were highly educated and wealthy. They greatly improved the general character of the settlement, Winthrop remaining the leading man of all the region until his death, a period of twenty years.

In 1638 Harvard College was founded. It was the first institution of the kind in this country. William and Mary's College, Virginia, was not much later. The first president of Harvard set up in his own house the first printing-press of the continent north of Mexico the year following.

Gradually the Puritans extended their settlements to the Connecticut Valley and Long Island Sound. Connecticut was thus

settled, as were New Hampshire and Maine, so far as they were settled at all, as continuations of Massachusetts. Vermont had no development until long after. Connecticut early acquired a reputation for being more puritanical than Massachusetts. Its "blue laws" have long been held up to ridicule, but there was no good ground for invidious comparison.

New Hampshire can point with pride to Dartmouth College and Connecticut to Yale College, as evidence of the high character of their early settlers. The story of the Charter Oak is one of which the state of Connecticut may well be proud. Charles II. attempted to deprive the puritan colonies of their charter, but the one granted to Connecticut was concealed in an oak-tree, where it remained until it was safe to bring it to light. The Charter Oak stood until 1856. Its memorable use was in 1687.

In early colonial days the only peculiar part of New England was Rhode Island, or Providence, founded by Roger Williams, a clergyman who was banished from Plymouth for his liberal views, especially for his opposition to persecution and the union of church and state. He founded Providence in 1636. Newport was started by a few men of similar views as himself in 1638. It was a long time before the other New England colonies fraternized with "the plantations on Narragansett Bay."

ROGER WILLIAMS.

The settlers about Boston were particularly bigoted. In 1656 the first Friends or Quakers arrived at Boston. They were persecuted shamefully. They were ordered to leave. Some were whipped in public; some imprisoned; four hanged on Boston Common, and two little girls ordered sold as slaves in the Barbadoes, an order no sea captain could be found to carry out. Boston has almost as much to be ashamed of as Salem. One hanged a few Quakers, the other burnt several witches. The account of Salem witchcraft finds place in connection with witchcraft in general.

The first Indian, as appears from a previous chapter, to realize the conflict between the aborigines and the pale faces about them, was Philip, son of Massasoit, chief of the Pokanokets. In 1674 he rallied the savages for a war of extermination. For four years King Philip's war was waged. The Narragansetts were in the alliance; many of the whites were massacred. Peace was restored in 1678, after two thousand Indians had been killed, including Philip himself. The saintly John Eliot saw the work he had prosecuted for thirty years undone, and all hope of incorporating the Indians of New England into the body of civilized society destroyed. Philip's only son was sold into slavery in Bermuda, and the Indians of the region rendered helplessly weak. That war rid New England forever of what had been the especial peril and fear of the whites for half a century. What the good Eliot had hoped to do by the Gospel of Christ was superseded and rendered nugatory by gunpowder. King Philip's war determined the Indian policy of the United States, notwithstanding the pacific and just policy of Roger Williams in Rhode Island, William Penn at Philadelphia and the intermediate policy of other settlements.

During the ten years immediately succeeding the arrival of Winthrop at Boston not less than 20,000 Puritans became pilgrims to America. The Boston settlement was somewhat less rigidly puritanical than the Separatists of Plymouth. It is a curious fact that Roger Williams was banished from Massachusetts Bay partly for advanced ideas and partly for his bigotry. The sentence of the court rested on these four indictments: first, teaching that the title of the Massachusetts Company from the king to its lands was not valid, but that the Indians were the true owners; second, that it was not lawful to call a wicked person to swear or to pray, as being the acts of God's worship; third, that it was wrong to listen to any of the ministers of the Parish Assemblies of England; fourth, that the civil power had no authority over the opinions [religious] of men. For the first and last he is revered, while the first part of the second and all the third are generally ignored. His memory is also revered for his great service in 1637, in saving the New England settlements from a general Indian war. Owing to his influence the Narragansetts and the Mohegans did not join the Pequots in raiding the whites. The result was that the latter tribe was exterminated without much trouble. A few other illustrious names belong to early colonial New England. Miles Standish, the first soldier, John Alden, the friend whom he sent

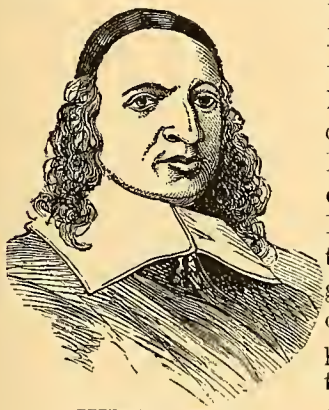
to court the maiden whom both loved, and who finally said, "Why don't you speak for yourself, John,?" are the three characters having romantic interest. Cotton Mather was a powerful minister of the gospel. Salem witchcraft has always been a reproach to his otherwise fair name. Speaking of this point, Poole says: "While witchcraft raged in Europe thirty thousand victims perished in the British Islands, seventy-five thousand in France, one hundred thousand in Germany, and corresponding numbers in Italy, Spain, Switzerland, Sweden." He puts the number of executions in New England at thirty-two, all told. Mrs. Anne Hutchinson was the "strong-minded" woman in the colonies. She had the honor of being associated with Williams, William Coddington, John Clarke, William Aspinwall, and some others, in the purchase of Rhode Island, for which they paid the aborigines "forty fathoms of white beads." In 1642 she removed with her family to New Netherlands, where she was the victim of an Indian massacre. One child escaped the tomahawk. She was a second cousin of the poet Dryden. Thomas Hooker, long the leading minister of Connecticut, as John Cotton and Cotton Mather were of Massachusetts, was a man of great intellectual strength. He belonged to a family already illustrious in ministerial annals, and which is still nobly represented in the pulpit.

HENRY HUDSON.

The Connecticut Puritans early came into contact with the Dutch. In 1609 Henry Hudson, an English sailor who had already made two voyages to America, was sent by the Dutch East India Company in quest of a passage across the continent, in the hope of a short cut to the Orient. In his search he sailed into New York harbor, never before visited by white men, and sailed up the river now bearing his name as far as the present site of Albany, when he was obliged to abandon his enterprise and turn back. His report of the beauties of the country suggested the idea of a Dutch settlement in America. In 1613 a trading-post was established at New York, which was first called New Amsterdam. The next year another was established at Fort Orange, or Albany.

The settlement of New York for purposes of cultivation dates from 1623, when the Dutch West India Company established colonists on the shores of the Hudson river, on a plan widely different from that of any of the English colonies. There was never any religious persecution, nor was religion considered in any way, apparently. The early settlers of New York may be called "Christian pagans." But the most remarkable feature of New Netherlands, as the region was called, was the patroon system. Any man bringing fifty persons with him was allowed a tract of land with sixteen miles of river frontage and a depth as great as "the situation of the occupiers would permit." The patroon was allowed almost absolute control within his own domain. New England had its small farms and farmers, Virginia and Maryland their spacious plantations, tilled by slave labor, and New Netherlands its lordly estates, cultivated by tenants. The latter system was not adapted to a country of boundless landed resources, still, it has not wholly disappeared from New York yet. Two centuries and a half have rolled by and the "patroon" may be found occasionally. The Wadsworth estate in the Geneseo valley is the largest still left. Those upon the Hudson and the Mohawk have nearly all disappeared. "The Patroon War," or rebellion of the tenants of the Van Rensselaer estate, which occurred some two generations ago, virtually removed the system from the eastern part of the state.

The first Dutch governor was Wouter Van Twiller, a singularly stupid man; the second, William Kieft, a busy little despot, and the third and last was the stalwart Peter Stuyvesant, a man of extraordinary will power. Many of the people were English. Absolute religious liberty drew to the banks of the Hudson a great variety of people. In 1664 the English fleet entered the harbor, passing Hell-gate and without serious opposition taking possession of the country. Henceforth new names were adopted, New York being substituted for New Netherlands and New Amsterdam, and Albany for Fort Orange. The people took kindly to the change, for the mass of the colonists were restless under the patroon system as originally adopted, with its denial of all political rights to the common people. This fact, rather than any lack of courage on the part of Stuyvesant, paralyzed the arm of that stout-hearted last of the Dutch governors.



PETER STUYVESANT.

A little south of New York was the Swedish colony projected by Gustavus Adolphus, but not established until 1638. New Sweden comprised the territory from Cape Henlopen to Trenton Falls. The present state of Delaware and parts of New Jersey and Pennsylvania belonged to the Swedes by right of purchase from the Indians and of actual occupancy. After an existence of seventeen years New Sweden was annexed to New Netherlands, almost without a struggle, the annexation including all except that portion of it in or near Philadelphia, which William Penn purchased of the Swedes. The Dutch regained possession of New York after nine years, retaining it for fifteen months only; but Sweden made no attempt to maintain control of its colony, and the colonists themselves seemed quite indifferent to political changes.

It was not until 1683 that William Penn established his Quaker colony in the new world. This illustrious Friend was the friend of Charles II. of England, and the king owed his father, Admiral Penn, a large sum of money. In discharge of that debt His Majesty gave the son a charter to a large tract of land west of the Delaware river, and vested in him full regal powers.

Penn established a "free colony for the good and oppressed of all nations," more particularly his co-religionists. The city of Philadelphia was the starting-point of the settlement. Among those who availed themselves of the privileges of Pennsylvania, was a company of Germans, who, like the English Quakers, were non-residents, very simple in their tastes, demure in manner, and pure in morals. Many of their descendants have maintained their national speech and old-time peculiarities almost unchanged for two centuries. Pennsylvania was never disgraced by an Indian war, by religious persecution, or any form of fanaticism. The nearest approach to it was a trial for witchcraft which resulted in acquittal. Penn was born in London in 1644, educated at Oxford, and early converted to Quakerism. He never resided long in the colony which he founded. His last years were spent in poverty and distress. He died in 1718.

WILLIAM PENN.

The Carolinas came into view in 1630 when Charles I. made a grant of "The Province of Carolina" to Sir Robert Heath. But only a very little was done in that part of the new world, beyond some lumbering in the pineries, until a movement was made at the head of which stands the illustrious name of John Locke. The greatest of English philosophers, Lord Bacon, had been a shareholder in a company gotten up to make money out of Virginia, but his brother philosopher was actuated by no mercenary motive. Locke and his associates undertook to establish an ideal state in America. He and Lord Shaftesbury drew up a grand model of an aristocratic Utopia. The "Model" was utterly unsuited to the purposes of the pioneers, but the settlement grew and prospered. The Locke Grant was issued in 1663. The first permanent colony was planted in North Carolina. The first within the limits of South Carolina dates from 1670. Before that time French and Spanish representatives had tried to gain a foothold on that coast. Much blood had been shed, and all to no advantage, for the

country was neither French nor Spanish. But after the English had fairly taken undisputed possession many French Huguenots flocked thither from the persecutions of France. Between the years 1686 and 1688 no less than a million Huguenots fled from their native land, a few of them seeking asylum in Carolina. From Scotland also came many victims of persecution, Covenanters who were subject to most cruel treatment at home. The Carolinas were not so much established by Englishmen as by Frenchmen and Scotchmen. Many of the latter settled in New Jersey, where Elizabethtown was founded in 1670.

In a general way it deserves to be added, that the seeds of the United States were sown by persecution, and that even where persecution was not the first cause.

The latest distinct settlement in America to grow into a separate state was effected at Savannah in 1733, under the auspices of the philanthropic Governor Oglethorpe, the father of Georgia. This amiable man excluded rum and slaves, both being at that time common to all American colonies. His influence was counteracted, so far as slavery was concerned, by that eminent evangelist, George Whitefield. Oglethorpe's primal idea was to establish an asylum for insolvent debtors. In effect it proved mainly a resort for the malcontents of the Carolinas and Virginia. It grew rapidly, and early became an important colony. It was named in honor of George II. of England.

JAMES EDWARD OGLETHORPE.

We have now spoken of the colonies which developed ultimately into the thirteen colonies and states, each in its infancy. It may be well in this connection to refer to the other early settlements within the present limits of the United States, but which had no part or lot in achieving for these once widely severed settlements national unity.

The earliest of these was Florida. Ponca de Leon landed on the north side of the gulf-stream, opposite the Bahamas, on Easter-day of 1513, naming the country *Pascua Florida*. He was in search of the fabled fountain of youth. No practical results followed, de Leon receiving a wound in an encounter with the natives which proved fatal to him in Cuba.

DE SOTO.

But in 1539 Fernando de Soto, a Spanish nobleman who had been with Cortez in Mexico and Pizarro in Peru, amassing a large fortune, was commissioned to take possession of Florida. He fitted out a large fleet. He had 600 men with him and a goodly supply of domestic animals, including bloodhounds. In May of the next year he landed. For three years he and his men wandered about in search of gold. He was the first to discover the Mississippi River. He finally perished in the wilderness. In 1565 Pedro Menendez, another Spaniard, landed in Florida. He had 3,000 men with him. They founded the city of St. Augustine, which now has the honor of being the oldest European town in the United States.

Three years before, a French settlement had been effected at Port Royal, South Carolina. Admiral Coligny, the great Huguenot statesman, was the real father of the settlement. Carolina, it may be observed, was named in honor of Charles of France, not of England. This colony and the one at Florida were far enough from each other, one would suppose, to prevent clashing. But unfortunately a second French settlement had been effected on the St. John's River in Florida, which served as a connecting link of hostility. The Spaniards were intense papists, the French hardly less bigoted Huguenots. They fell to cutting each other's throats. All the French at Fort Caroline on the St. John's were massacred by Menendez, "not as Frenchmen, but as heretics," he set up as his defense. Not long after a Frenchman of great wealth, Dominique de Gourgues, fitted up a fleet for revenge, and terrible was his success. Such of the Spaniards as escaped in battle he hanged, inscribing over their heads, "Not as Spaniards, but as traitors, robbers and murderers." Such was the tragic fate of "New France" and "New Spain" on the Atlantic seaboard within the present limits of the United States, for the French colony farther north was destroyed in counter-revenge.

During the period of colonial infancy under con-

sideration the French made some progress in the interior of the country by way of the St. Lawrence and the lakes. In 1673 Pere Marquette, a Jesuit of the better type, who had already spent several years as a missionary in Canada, set out with Louis, Joliet and others, to explore the sources of the St. Lawrence. They reached the Mississippi in June of the same year, going by way of Green Bay, Fox river and the Wisconsin river. They descended the Mississippi as far, at least, as Kaskaskia, Illinois, and returned by way of the Illinois river. Joliet returned to Quebec, but the good Father Marquette remained in the wilderness, dying two years later on the east shore of Lake Michigan while engaged in mission work.

Gradually, and undisturbed by English, Spanish or Indian hostility, the French established settlements on the prairie along the river-banks. Some interesting relics and records attest very considerable prosperity in those days; but later they fell into decay, and in the permanent settlement of that portion of the United States north of what was once Louisiana, the region purchased of France during the sovereignty of Napoleon, those French settlements exerted hardly a perceptible influence. In a word, they belong to the historical, in distinction from the actual, in the new world.

Louisiana received its name from LaSalle, the illustrious French explorer. The term was designed to embrace all the valley of the Mississippi. The French built great expectations upon the development of that valley, and of fur trade with the Indians of the interior. Mobile was established in 1702, New Orleans fifteen years later, and all seemed prosperous, when suddenly the Mississippi bubble of the visionary Law burst, whelming France in bankruptcy, and preparing the way for English triumph over her great continental rival in the possessions of the North American continent.

This chapter cannot be closed more appositely than by quoting Mr. Francis Parkman's very discriminating comparison between the colonial aims and purpose of New England and New France. "The growth of New England," he says "was a result of the aggregate efforts of a busy multitude, each in his narrow circle toiling for himself, to gather competence or wealth. The expansion of New France was the achievement of a gigantic ambition striving to grasp a continent. It was a vain attempt. Long and valiantly her chiefs upheld their cause, leading to battle a vassal population, warlike as themselves. Borne down from numbers from without, wasted by corruption from within, New France fell at last; and out of her fall grew revolutions whose influence, to this hour, is felt throughout every nation of the civilized world.

"The French dominion is a memory of the past; and when we evoke its departed shades, they rise upon us from their graves in strange romantic guise. Again their ghostly camp-fires seem to burn, and the fitful light is cast around on lord and vassal and black-robed priest, mingled with wild forms of savage warriors, knit in close fellowship on the same stern errand. A boundless vision grows upon us; an untamed continent; vast wastes of forest verdure; mountains silent in primeval sleep; river, lake, and glimmering pool; wilderness oceans mingling with the sky. Such was the domain which France conquered for civilization. Plumed helmets gleamed in the shade of its forests, priestly vestments in its dens and fastnesses of ancient barbarism. Men steeped in antique learning, pale with the close breath of the cloister, here spent the noon and evening of their lives, ruled savage hordes with a mild, parental sway, and stood serene before the direst shapes of death. Men of courtly nurture, heirs to the polish of a far-reaching ancestry, here, with their dauntless hardihood, put to shame the boldest sons of toil."

COLONIAL GROWTH AND OUTGROWTH.

CHAPTER LXXVII.

FIRST STEP TOWARD UNION—"BOARD OF TRADE AND PLANTATIONS"—INTERCOLONIAL WARS—THE FLORIDANS AND THE GEORGIANS—WARS BETWEEN FRENCH AND ENGLISH COLONISTS—A CENTURY OF BLOOD—LIEUTENANT-COLONEL GEORGE WASHINGTON AND DR. FRANKLIN—RELATIVE POSSESSIONS OF FRANCE, SPAIN AND ENOLAND IN NORTH AMERICA—CAPTURE OF QUEBEC—NEW FRANCE AND OLD ENGLAND—COLONIAL DEBTS AND MONEY—INDIRECT RESULTS OF THE FRENCH WAR—STAMP ACT—BOSTON AND NORTH CAROLINA—SMUGGLING AND THE GASPEE—BOSTON TEA PARTY—PORT BILL—FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS AND PATRICK HENRY—MINUTE MEN AND PAUL REVERE'S RIDE—BATTLE OF LEXINGTON—CONTINENTAL ARMY ORGANIZED—ETHAN ALLEN AND THE GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS—BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL—THE CANADIAN EXPEDITION—EVACUATION OF BOSTON—CHARLESTON HARBOR AND MOULTRIE—DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE—EMINENT MEN OF THE PERIOD—BENJAMIN FRANKLIN AGAIN.

IN 1696 the English government created a "Board of Trade and Plantations" for the administration of colonial affairs. This Board recommended a closer union between the colonies. Previous to that time the Puritan colonies had developed very considerable fellowship, and there had been established a little communication between New York, Boston and the intervening towns accessible by water. William Penn drew up the plan of a close union which was not carried out until long after.

The English policy was to restrict colonial trade to commerce with the mother country alone. That "mercantile system" was embodied in the Navigation Act, and similar statutes of Parliament. By every means posssible the home government attempted to render the American colonies entirely subservient to the wealth of the mother country. It was not until about the beginning of the eighteenth century that England realized the importance of America, and set about making it tributary in right good earnest. The policy which culminated in war for independence may be said to date from the creation of the "Board of Trade and Plantations."

But the great agency in making the colonists acquainted with each other and binding them together by a bond of common sympathy, was intercolonial war, growing out of French and English rivalries in the new world. The Georgians had a conflict with the Floridans which resulted favorably to the former without requiring any help from more northern colonies, but when the British lion met the French unicorn in the wilderness, victory was not so easy.

There were four distinct wars between the French and English colonists, culminating in what is known as "The old French and Indian War," beginning in 1754 and continuing until 1763. The other three were, King William's War, 1689-97; Queen Anne's War, 1702-13; King George's War, 1744-48. Treaties of peace were signed or formal declarations of hostility proclaimed by the home governments according to the general situation in Europe, without

much regard to the real state of affairs in America. For a century there was hardly any actual cessation of hostilities for any considerable length of time. It was only after France had lost Canada, and England the United States, that permanent peace was secured. From that time on, the continent was delivered from wars which were both intercolonial and international. The melancholy fate of Acadia, a part of Canadian history already narrated, belongs to that series of wars.

By the middle of the eighteenth century French and English pioneer enterprise began to touch and clash in the Ohio valley. In 1753 Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia, sent George Washington, then only 21 years of age, to Venango to know his reasons for invading the British dominions. The reply was that the whole country west of the Alleghanies belonged to France by right of discovery. The next year the young Virginian, then a lieutenant-colonel of colonial militia, established a fort at the forks of the Ohio river. A South Carolina company came to his assistance. The two commanders quarreled over the leadership. The discussion was soon ended by a successful attack by the French, who acquired possession of the entire Ohio valley. The colonists were alarmed, for everywhere the French secured Indian alliance.

THE EXILE OF THE ACADIANS.

In 1755 Gen. Braddock, in command of the British and Colonial forces on the frontier, undertook to capture Fort DuQuesne, the key to the Ohio valley. They were attacked in the woods by the Indians. "The British could only fire in platoons," says Thalheimer, "hitting rocks and trees much oftener than Indians, while the colonists, springing behind trees, took aim with effect." Braddock was mortally wounded. The retreat of his regulars was covered by the colonists with such gallantry that it gave their commander, Washington, a reputation throughout the colonies for coolness, bravery and skill. It is probable that to Braddock's defeat is this country and the world indebted for the public services of George Washington.

The success of the French over the English in the Ohio wilderness stimulated a movement for a closer union. All the colonies north of the Potomac sent delegates to a convention held at Albany. Benjamin Franklin was a delegate. He presented a plan of union which the convention accepted. But the English Board of Trade, although it had at first been in favor of union, prudently vetoed the Franklin plan. Many of the colonists were pleased with the veto, apprehensive of losing colonial individuality in a union of the colonies. The French war was early transferred from the remote valley of the Ohio to the east, especially to northern New York. At this period eighty per cent. of North America belonged to France, sixteen per cent. to Spain, and four per cent. to England.

The great event of the culminating war between the French and the English in the new world was the capture of Quebec in 1759. That stronghold was defended by the brave Montcalm and assailed by the gallant General Wolfe. Gaining access to "the Plains of Abraham" by a secret path and in the night, Wolfe led a charge at daybreak. The armies were about equal in number. Both generals were mortally wounded. A noble monument has been erected to mark the equal heroism of the two commanders.

The next year, 1760, Montreal was captured, as well as Quebec held, and in 1763 by the terms of the peace of Paris, France surrendered to England all the country north of the St. Lawrence and east of the Mississippi; one of the most important cessions of all history. It was, in effect, the abandonment by France of a colonial policy. It was the beginning of the total end of "New France." What England did not secure was to fall, ultimately, to the United States.

GENERAL WOLFE.

SCALING THE HEIGHTS OF ABRAHAM.

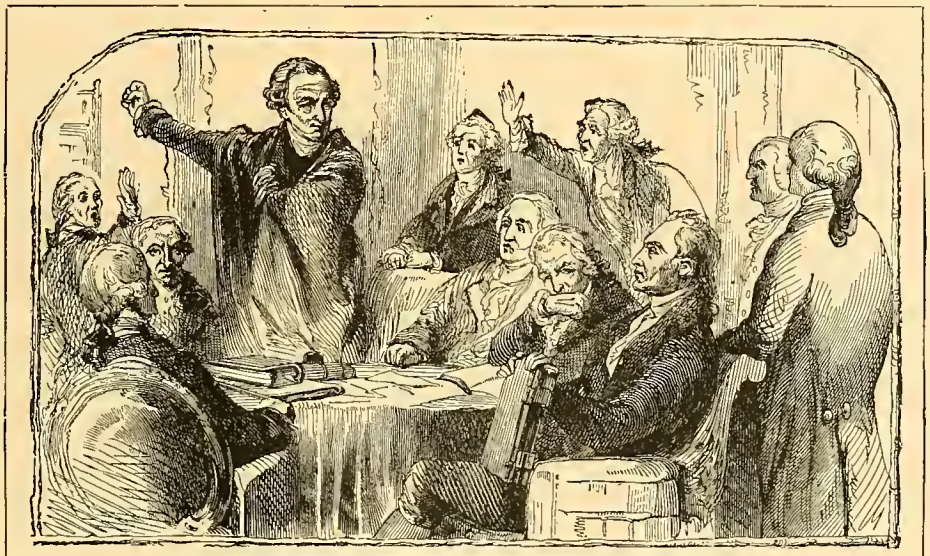
The colonies found themselves heavily in debt when the last French war was ended, namely, $16,000,000. Of this amount the home government reimbursed the colonies to the extent of $5,000,000. The first colonial money, or medium of exchange, was corn, furs, tobacco, or the like. Virginia early drew from England in exchange for tobacco money enough for all practical purposes. The first mint was established in 1652 by Massachusetts, and the first coin was "the pine-tree shilling." Paper money was first used in Massachusetts, its introduction dating from 1690. Dollars and cents belong to the period of independence.

Speaking of the relations of the French war to the colonies, a historical writer says, "The significance of the war was in its being a preparation for the impending struggle of the revolution. It was a training-school for the generals and soldiers of the colonies. It showed them war as conducted by the best captains of Europe. Washington, Putnam, Gates, Montgomery, Stark, Arnold, Morgan, and others, who acted in the revolution, here learned the tactics of war. It also taught the colonies the idea of consolidation, and that 'in union there is strength.'" It did more than that. It secured for the colonies, when they came to strike for liberty, the sympathy of France, which proved to be a matter of incalculable importance.

The French war was a part, although a very small part, of the Seven-Years War in Europe. That war involved the great powers in heavy debts, and besides sustaining their own burdens, the colonies were ultimately required to contribute as never before to the English Exchequer. About this time (1760) George III. came to the throne. From the first he was unfriendly to the American colonies. In 1765 was enacted the famous Stamp Act in accordance with which all legal documents had to bear a stamp, costing from threepence to six pounds sterling, according to their importance. Even newspapers had to be stamped. The act called out intense hostility. The next year it was repealed, but only to give place to a

substitute in the way of a tax on tea, glass, paper and other necessary imports. British soldiers were quartered on the people. Boston was foremost in resisting the encroachments of the home government, but the brave North Carolinians were not much behind the patriots of Boston. It was to escape British tyranny that many of the people of North Carolina moved west, establishing what is now the state of Tennessee in 1772. But every part of the country had its grievance, negative and positive. The restriction upontrade and manufactures was quite as injurious as direct taxation. Even Pitt, the advocate in parliament of political justice, declared, "If I could have my way, there would not be so much as a hob-nail made in the colonies."

A STAMP.


PATRICK HENRY BEFORE THE VIRGINIA ASSEMBLY.

WILLIAM PITT.

The iron of Pennsylvania and the timber of the South and of Maine could not be used at all. Smuggling developed into a respectable line of business, especially in Rhode Island. The British sent the schooner *Gaspee* to Narragansett Bay to lay in wait for smugglers. Citizens of Providence set fire to her, and all the people approved the act.

In 1773 all taxes were removed, except that on tea, three-pence a pound, and this was only a matter of form, for the actual cost of tea was less in America, under this tax, than it was in England. The cargoes brought to New York and Philadelphia were sent back, but the British troops at Boston prevented this from being done there. Hereupon a great meeting for protestation was held at Faneuil Hall (well called the cradle of American liberty), after which a party of men in disguise boarded the ships in the harbor and threw all the tea overboard. That famous "tea-party" created great excitement. Other colonies were delighted, and the English were enraged. Parliament passed the "Boston Port Bill" by which the port of Boston was closed. This act of petty spite on the part of a great nation excited the wrath of all the colonies, and went far to develop a feeling of common interest. The sentiment of patriotism found expression in the organization of the "Sons of Liberty" throughout the colonies. It was to this society, very largely, that was due the convocation of a deliberative and representative body to consult over the grave situation. That body met at Philadelphia, the most central of all the cities at that time, in September, 1774. It proved to be something more than a convention, nothing less than the beginning of a series of convocations which were regular and of supreme importance. It is known as the First Continental Congress. It consisted of fifty-three members. It was opened with an eloquent address by the supreme orator of Virginia and of the entire country, Patrick Henry. The next year he was elected governor of Virginia, and ever after remained a provincial statesman, in practical work; but his advocacy of

the rights of the colonies and denunciations of oppression entitle him to the profound gratitude of the nation. He was born in 1736 and died in 1799. The deliberations of the first congress were characterized by prudence. There was no defiance, no menace. A respectful petition was drawn up expressive of unswerving loyalty to the king, but earnestly protesting against quartering armies upon the colonies against their consent. A resolution was also adopted to the effect that no commercial intercourse

RETREAT OF THE BRITISH FROM CONCORD AND LEXINGTON.

should be held with England until a change of policy towards the colonies. From a British point of view that resolution was almost a declaration of war.

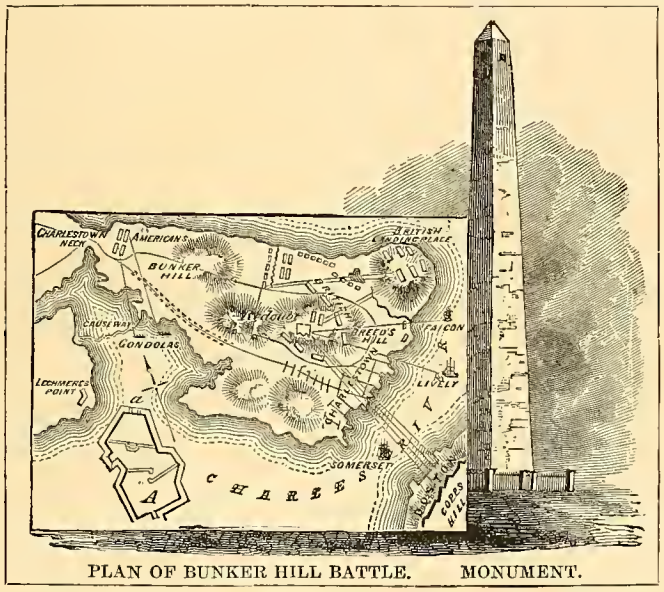
About this time the people formed themselves into military companies, sworn to serve in the defense of their rights at a moment's notice, hence "minute men." There had been some premonitory symptoms of war in the way of collisions and bloodshed in the streets of Boston and New York, also in North Carolina; but nothing approaching the dignity of a battle. Actual hostilities were inaugurated by the British at Boston. They cannonaded the city. General Gage was in command of the English forces. As soon as Dr. Warren, afterwards immortalized at Bunker Hill, learned what was to be done, he sent Paul Revere to rouse the surrounding towns and call out the minute men. His ride has been rendered illustrious by Longfellow's thrilling poem on the subject. In an incredibly short time thirty thousand brave men were on their way in hot haste to "Boston town," musket in hand.

The battle of Lexington was the first engagement of the Revolutionary War. It was fought early in the spring of 1775. General Gage sent 800 men to destroy some military supplies at Concord. They accomplished their object without very serious opposition, but on their return they were met by "the embattled farmers," who had gathered to give them a warm greeting. The British were routed in that first encounter, the battle of Lexington. Thirty-one towns were represented in that conflict. That "brush," for it was hardly more, served to sharply outline and distinctly presage the conflict which was to close with the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. The war which began in the spring of 1775 was destined to end in the fall of 1781. Most appropriately, what began in Massachusetts closed in Virginia.

The second Continental Congress met at Phila-

delphia about six months after the battle of Lexington. Loyalty to King George was still professed. Our revolutionary fathers were slow to break absolutely with the mother country. There were a great many colonists who would have been shocked at the idea then who soon embraced it. George Washington was of this number. Those who never ceased to be in favor of British rule in the colonies were called Tories; the patriots, Whigs. A "Continental army" was organized by Congress for seven months, and Washington was elected commander-in-chief. It was about this time that he wrote that he "abhorred the idea of independence," an idea already boldly advocated by the Adamses, Samuel and John, and by some others.

After Lexington, the first movement was in the direction of securing Canada. On the west shore of Lake Champlain stood two strong forts, designed for use in the old French and Indian war. Without waiting for orders or assistance, Ethan Allen and Seth Warner, who lived in the sparsely settled region between that lake and the Connecticut river, rallied a few fellow "Green Mountain Boys" and crossed Champlain, surprised the garrisons and took the forts without firing a shot. Immense supplies of war material were found there and captured. It was a brilliant sortie, and justly entitled Vermont to immediate recognition as a distinct colony, but New York and New Hampshire both claimed jurisdiction over the region. Allen soon afterward made an attempt on Montreal, was captured, and disappeared from the annals of the war. After his release he returned to Vermont, where he died in 1789, fifty years of age. His companion, Warner, remained in the service throughout the war, but was never again prominent.



PLAN OF BUNKER HILL BATTLE. MONUMENT.

The battle of Bunker Hill was fought June 16th of the same year. It was a victory for the British, yet it afforded the colonists great satisfaction. The Americans were obliged to surrender because their powder gave out. They had shown, however, that, as General Gage wrote in his report, "The rebels are not the despicable rabble too many have supposed them to be." General Warren fell in that battle. Throughout the country there was unbounded admiration for the desperate heroism with which the British were repulsed until the ammunition was spent. Washington, then on his way to Boston, was greatly encouraged.

GENERAL WARREN.

Washington arrived at Boston and took actual command, July 3d. In the preceding May the bold patriots of North Carolina had met in Charlotte, Mecklenburg county, and adopted the "Mecklenburg Resolutions," which were similar in tone to the Declaration of Independence which came more than a year later. But even with Bunker Hill, Ticonderoga, Crown Point and Lexington behind them, the colonists were not quite ready for the avowal of separation. They wished to secure the co-operation of Canada, and unite all British America in the struggle. To this policy everything was directed. General Montgomery proceeded by way of Lake Champlain to capture St. John's and Montreal, while Benedict Arnold reached Quebec by another route and demanded its surrender. He was soon joined by Montgomery,

GENERAL MONTGOMERY.

the latter taking the command. An assault was made. The gallant commander lost his life, Arnold was severely wounded, and the whole of the expedition defeated forever. The battle of Quebec was fought on the last day of 1775. In a short time the British recaptured Montreal and St. John's, thus settling, at the outset, the northern boundary of the United States, and binding Canada with colonial handcuffs which are now worn as bracelets.

With the winter of 1775-76 begins Washington's great career. His first aim was to compel the British to evacuate Boston. Works were erected at Dorchester Heights which forced General Howe, who had superseded General Gage, to evacuate. With over a thousand Tories and his own army, he sailed for Halifax, which served as a rendezvous for the British during the war. Henceforth to the end the problem for Washington was to so conduct a defensive warfare as to tire out the enemy and prevent, so far as possible, the loss of life and the destruction of property. It was the Fabian policy upon a continental scale.

GENERAL MOULTRIE.

GENERAL LEE.

What the next movement would be, no one could tell. Washington feared an attack upon New York. It was a very important point, although smaller then than Boston. But the British fleet steered farther south when it sailed away from Halifax, appearing in Charleston harbor in June. General Charles Lee, who was in command of the southern department, thought it hopeless to defend the city, but Colonel Moultrie resolved to try it, erecting a rude fort on Sullivan's Island. From that point he canonaded the fleet before it could bombard the city. The enemy was obliged to abandon the assault. General Clinton, who was at the head of the expedition, then set his sails for New York. The fort on that island has ever since borne the name of Moultrie.

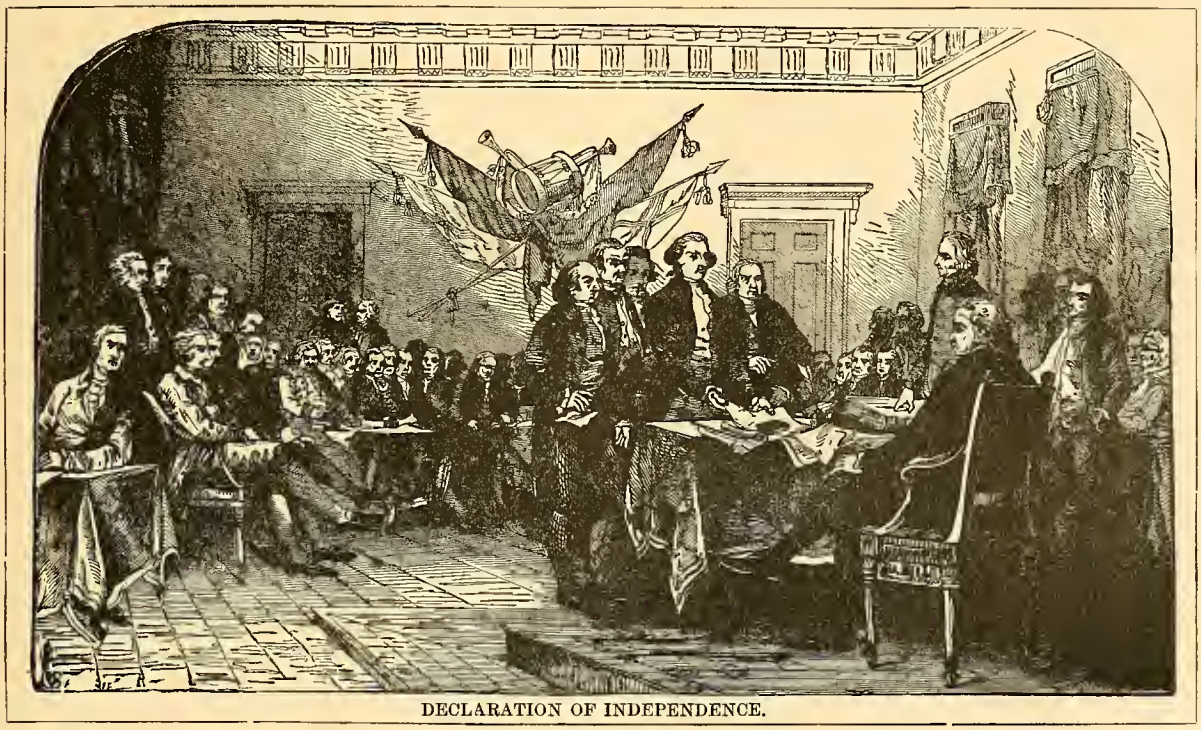
The next event of interest was the Declaration of Independence. After some hesitation and with great deliberation Congress decided to throw off all disguise and boldly announce independence. A committee for that purpose was appointed, consisting of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Robert Livingston and Roger Sherman. The declaration was submitted by Jefferson, who is supposed to have written it. His was certainly "the pen of a ready writer." The members signed it, John Hancock, the President, leading off with his bold sign manual. The country was fairly electrified by the declaration. It inspired the patriotism of all sections, and for the time obliterated provincial prejudices and converted thirteen colonies into states. Henceforth there was no recognition of colonial obligations. State legislatures and governors were elected and the mechanism of local self-government set up at once, and substantially as now. There was no nation then, only the embryonic elements of one, but the states, like Minerva, sprang forth fully armed. It is a curious fact that the great act which originated and was completed on a broadly national scale had the effect to create states long before it bore fruit in the creation of a nation, in a well-defined political sense of the term.

JOHN HANCOCK.

We have in this chapter followed the course of British rule and American growth and outgrowth to the point where the colonies emerge into states and the corner-stone of the nation was laid. There are a few great names and events which belong to that period distinctively, and to which specific attention should be called before proceeding further.

The captain-general of Massachusetts when the Revolutionary War began was Artemas Ward. He sustained much the same relation to that war that General Scott did to the civil war of a century later. He was elected major-general, but never served after General Washington assumed command. William Prescott was the American commander at Bunker Hill (or Breed's Hill, as that battle should have been called). Later he fought in the ranks. He was a brave and able man. The glories of Bunker Hill, however, enshrined the name of Joseph Warren. He was a physician. Congress elected him a major-general, but he was mortally wounded in defending the illustrious hill, and died while fighting in

the ranks. "The Sword of Bunker Hill" was a musket. James Otis was the first defender of the right of separation and the duty of union between the colonies. He was stricken down just before the war began. He was not quite fifty years of age at that time. Samuel Adams, a second cousin of John, was hardly less useful in those preliminary days than Otis. He was a man of great wisdom and high courage. What he grandly began his younger cousin worthily maintained to the end. The Adams family is the most illustrious in the political annals of America. But the supreme name of the period was Benjamin Franklin. He lived, it is true, to render important service to his country at the French court after the declaration had been issued, and in framing the constitution, but his best days were colonial. He early organized the postal system of the country. Franklin was a philosopher, an author and a discoverer. Born in Boston in 1706, he survived until 1790. He was a printer by trade. His career as a man began in Philadelphia, where in 1730 he married and started the *Pennsylvania Gazette* newspaper. He may be called the father of the press, insurance, science and invention in America. His experiments in electricity and discovery of the principle on which his great invention, the lightning-rod, rests, made him famous at home and abroad.

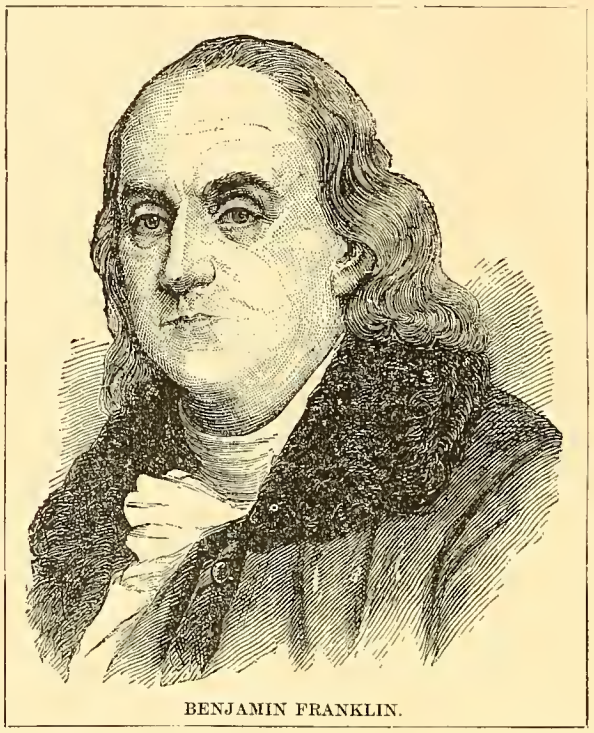


DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

JAMES OTIS.

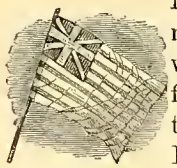
England and France delighted to honor him. He was given the title of LL. D., F. R. S., and otherwise recognized. As a writer his chief aim was to inculcate good habits, especially frugality. His "Poor Richard's Almanac," published annually from 1732 to 1757, made him familiarly known in this country and largely in England to a class of people not capable of following his scientific treatises. He filled many positions of trust, the last being a member of the convention which drafted the Constitution of the United States. He was then over eighty years of age. In him were united simplicity, dignity, prudence, perseverance and philanthropy. To him, more than to any one else, unless it be Thomas Jefferson, is this nation indebted for the complete separation of church and state. When he died the

whole nation mourned. Washington was indeed the father of his country, but Franklin is no less deserving of deathless honor and gratitude. It was not without good reason that the learned men of France, a century ago, were accustomed to speak of the United States as "Franklin's Republic."



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

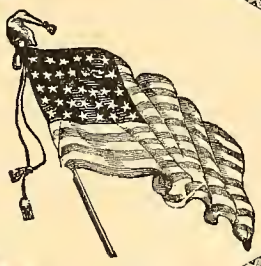
During the period thus far traversed, this country was almost wholly agricultural. Its commerce was very considerable, but clandestine. Under the restraints of colonial suppression, lawful commerce was confined entirely to English bottoms, and only the British flag allowed in American waters. The pioneers of American shipping were smugglers, and the merchant princes of the day were largely engaged in contraband trade. Shipbuilding, however, was tolerated, and throve greatly, until the home government interfered, and checked it. Ordinary manufactures were few and insignificant. For a century and a half the English in America were under colonial restraints, and succeeded only in laying the foundations of a great future.



BRITISH FLAG.

Speaking of the American people in this stage of development, a recent historian well observes, "These people, whose ancestors had been driven into exile by the exactions of European governments and the bigotry of ecclesiastical power, had become the rightful proprietors of the New World. They had fairly won it from savage man and savage nature. They had subdued it and built states within it. They owned it by the claims of actual possession; by toil and trial; by the ordeal of suffering; by peril, privation, and hardship; by the baptism of sorrow and the shedding of blood." The time had now fully come for the announcement and establishment of the principles of Union and Independence.

INDEPENDENCE AND UNION.



CHAPTER LXXVIII.

Hessians—Battle of Lono Island and the Disaster Resulting—The Spring of 1777—Marquis de La Fayette—Battle of Brandywine—The War in the North—Valley Foroe—Congressional Action—Distinguished Foreigners in the American Army—1778—1779—1780—Mutiny and Finance in 1781—Arnold and New London—Lord Cornwallis and Yorktown—Peace—The War Debt and the Union—The Constitution—The Great Crisis and its Leading Features—From July 4, 1776, to March 4, 1789.

ALL disguise was now thrown off, all hesitation at an end. Henceforth to the end of the conflict it was treason in America to sympathize with Great Britain and in England to sympathize with the rebellions colonies. The British government freely spent money in hiring mercenary troops from petty German states (known in our history as Hessians) and in securing Indian allies. The number of Hessians were seventeen thousand, many of whom deserted and became American citizens.

The only remaining military operations of that first year of the war were in New York and New Jersey. Eight days after the Declaration of Independence Lord Howe sailed into New York Bay. His brother, General Howe, was already on Staten Island with a force of 50,000 men. The Howes thought they were masters of the situation. They offered pardon to all rebels who returned to allegiance. They mistook public sentiment. On the 26th of August the battle of Long Island was fought, General Clinton at the head of the British forces. The Americans, under Generals Sullivan and Sterling, were routed. The dead on our side were several hundred, the prisoners nearly one thousand. The latter were sent on board of "prison ships," as Ethan Allen had been before them. During the war no less than 11,000 Americans perished on these floating bastiles.

GENERAL CLINTON.

The disaster of Long Island rendered necessary the retreat of Washington. He crossed East River and established his headquarters on Harlem Heights first. Howe took possession of New York City. A great conflagration consumed about five hundred houses. The battle of White Plains followed, October 27, in which Washington was defeated, but not routed. He retired in good order to North Castle. He now began to be apprehensive for the safety of Philadelphia. He crossed to New Jersey, intending to defend the city which was in

GENERAL SULLIVAN.

effect the national capital. But he was too late. It was taken by the British, November 16, and with it 2,600 prisoners in arms. Congress was obliged to take hasty leave for Baltimore. "These are times that try men's souls," wrote the brilliant patriot, Thomas Paine. Cornwallis rapidly followed Washington who crossed the Delaware, taking care, however, to destroy the boats behind him. On Christmas night he took by surprise and captured a thousand Hessians at Trenton. A week later, it being evident that Cornwallis intended to fall on the Continentals, Washington, not waiting for the attack, marched at once upon Princeton where there was something over three regiments of the enemy.

RETREAT OF THE AMERICANS FROM LONG ISLAND.

At daybreak, January 3, 1777, he fell upon the town, and in twenty minutes he had routed and dispersed the British with a loss on that side of 200 killed and wounded and 230 prisoners. The American loss was slight. The moral effect of this victory was very great. It revived the hopes of the country and led to a series of operations which resulted in driving the enemy out of the "the Jerseys." About this time, however, both armies went into winter quarters, the British at New Brunswick, the Americans at Morristown.

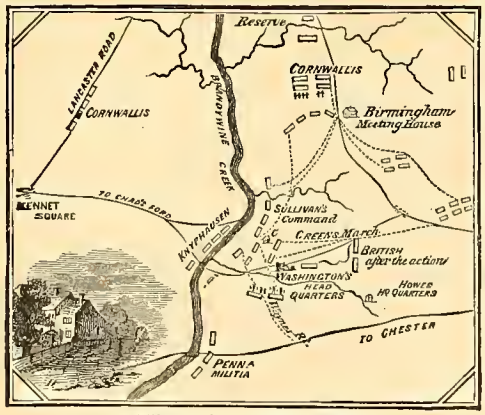
Thus far Washington would seem to have been a failure, yet Congress had no thought of displacing him. On the contrary, he had grown in their good opinion. That winter he was clothed with supreme authority in all military matters, invested with almost dictatorial powers. The winter was employed in recruiting his thinned ranks. By spring he had an army of ten thousand men. There was considerable skirmishing during the winter and spring, Washington obtaining some advantage, but the main armies did not resume operations until June, 1777. Even then the two armies were slow in coming together. The British General, Burgoyne, was moving southward from Canada, re-taking Crown Point and Ticonderoga. Washington was perplexed to find out if Howe intended to co-operate with Burgoyne and sweep all before them from New York harbor to St. John's, or to swing around and fall upon Philadelphia. He had to be on the alert to meet either emergency. July 23, Howe left General Clinton in command at New York, and with eighteen thousand soldiers sailed for the Delaware. Washington made all haste with his main army to succor Philadelphia. The condition

GENERAL LA FAYETTE.

of the country was critical in the extreme. Just then came the Marquis de La Fayette. This young French nobleman, of whom we heard in connection with the subsequent French Revolution, met Washington July 31. He had been made a Major-General by Congress a few days before. The reinforcements he brought were of incalculable importance. Now, for the first time, the Commander-in-chief was ready for a pitched battle. It came September 11, and is known as the Battle of the Brandywine. It was fought several miles above Wilmington, Delaware. It was a hard-fought battle. La Fayette was wounded. The Americans were obliged to fall back toward Philadelphia. Congress, which had returned from Baltimore, now made haste to seek a safe retreat, going first to Lancaster and then to York. In October Washington attacked the detachment of the enemy at Germantown, but suffered defeat. Soon after, Howe made Philadelphia the winter quarters of his whole army, Washington going into camp fourteen miles distant, at White Marsh.

Turning now to the northern army, we find General St. Clair obliged to abandon the strongholds on the west shore of Champlain. The main body of his army retreated toward Fort Edward, New York. A detachment crossed the lake under Colonel Seth Warner. An engagement occurred at Hubbardton, Vermont, July 7, 1777, which resulted in the defeat of the Americans. About that time Whitehall, then Skenesborough, was very nearly destroyed by the British, who were having everything their own way. But August 16 there was fought and won by the patriots the battle of Bennington, the second and last battle of the war on Vermont soil. Colonels

WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.



BATTLE AT THE BRANDYWINE.

John Stark and Seth Warner rallied there a brave force of Yankees, and defeated a detachment of the British army. About that time the enemy suffered defeat in the Mohawk valley, General Arnold being at the head of the American forces. The English general, Burgoyne, fixed his camp near Saratoga, and General Gates of the Americans established his camp not far from that of the enemy. Two indecisive engagements followed, when Burgoyne, despairing of reinforcements and short of provisions, surrendered. That was a most encouraging turn in the tide of fortune. That may be called the first really great victory of the war.

GENERAL ST. CLAIR.

GENERAL BURGOYNE.

While the operations in the North were thus brilliant, Washington's movements farther south were clouded with gloom. December 11 he took up permanent winter quarters at Valley Forge. That was a winter of horrible suffering. From White Marsh to Valley Forge was nineteen miles, and the march was stained with the blood of bleeding feet. The army was almost naked and actually hungry. The heroism which sustained them was a match for the heroism which had triumphed at Saratoga.

It was in 1777 that Congress adopted the national flag as we now have it, thirteen stripes of red and white, and thirteen stars on a blue background, the former representing the states and the latter the union. It also framed and submitted to the several states the Articles of Confederation, which were not fully adopted, however, until 1783.

BARON STEUBEN.

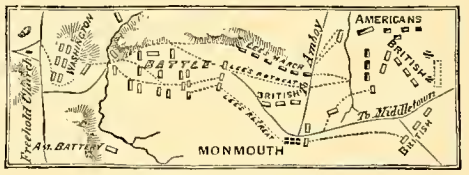
The spring of 1778 opened with revived hope. France became the avowed ally of the United States, thanks in part to the diplomacy of Dr. Franklin and in part to the French hostility to England. The recognition of American independence by the government at Paris was all-important. The surrender of Burgoyne served as a powerful aid in securing that recognition. Other Europeans besides La Fayette came to our assistance. Baron Steuben, a Prussian of thorough military training, became Inspector-General. He did much in the way of disciplining the raw recruits and volunteer officers of our army. Another German, Baron De Kalb, rendered excellent service. Two gallant Poles, Count Pulaski, who died in our cause, and Thaddeus Kosciusko, who survived to lead his own country in unavailing efforts at national restoration, also came to our aid in the dark hour of our sorest need.

BARON DE KALB.

When General Clinton left Philadelphia to join Howe in New York, Washington dogged his retreating steps. At Monmouth an engagement occurred. At first the British were successful, but General Washington going to the front in person, saved the day and turned defeat into victory.

COUNT PULASKI.

That summer a band of Tories and Indians from Western New York descended upon the peaceful inhabitants of the lovely Wyoming valley in Pennsylvania, as also Cherry Valley, in New York, committing every outrage. The massacre was avenged the following year by General Sullivan. Howe's fleet was held in check by the French fleet under D'Estaing. On the whole, the British went into winter quarters in New York and the Americans at Middlebrook, with the war no nearer its close, apparently, than it was when the first gun was fired. For the patriots, 1779 was a gloomy year. The two fleets, French and English, sailed south-



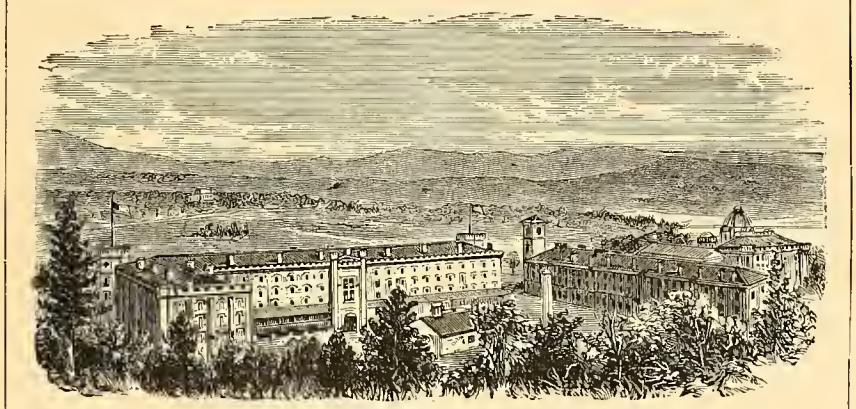
BATTLE AT MONMOUTH.

COUNT D'ESTAING.

ward, the former to attack British possessions in the Caribbean sea, and the latter to defend them. The war, so far as concerned this country, was mostly in the South that year, Georgia and the Carolinas. Tories were numerous, and the patriotic militia had to bear the brunt of the war without dependence upon the forces of the regular army. General Pickens and General Marion rendered most excellent service.

GENERAL PICKENS.

It was in futile endeavor to regain Savannah that Count Pulaski lost his gallant life. The British Parliament showed great determination to curb the rebellious colonies, and the French, on the other hand, showed signs of weakening. In 1780 the British were still successful at the South. Charleston fell, and with it Lincoln and his three thousand men. The battle of Camden was fought between the English under Cornwallis, and the Americans under Gates, the hero of Saratoga. Cornwallis won a complete victory. In that battle fell Baron De Kalb.



WEST POINT.

GENERAL LINCOLN.

In the North, Benedict Arnold forfeited his hitherto honorable name by basely selling himself to the enemy. His betrayal of his country came very near proving fatal. His treasonable design was to surrender the stronghold of West Point to the British. The details of the infamous business were arranged in an interview between Major Andre, of Clinton's staff, and Benedict Arnold, then in command at West Point. While returning from the interview Andre was taken prisoner on suspicion of being a spy, and papers setting forth the plot were found on his person. He was tried, convicted and hanged. Arnold made good his escape, only to live despised and miserable, his name a synonym for treachery. The year 1781 opened with a mutiny at Morristown. The sufferings of the soldiers had become unendurable. Fifteen hundred of the Pennsylvanians threatened to march on Philadelphia and "interview" Congress at the point of the bayonet.

GENERAL GATES.

They were only prevented from so doing by Congress meeting them with provision for their more pressing immediate wants. For this mutiny bickerings in Congress were more at fault than the soldiers themselves, but the chief cause, it must be conceded, was the almost utter prostration of the public means of support. Every device for raising revenue had been exhausted and the treasury was empty. Robert Morris, one of the merchant princes of Philadelphia, rendered the greatest service in raising funds for Congress to employ in the prosecution of the war.

BENEDICT ARNOLD.

The year which opened so inauspiciously proved to be the last one of the war. La Fayette's influence secured the co-operation of a second French fleet. That fleet had 7,000 men on board, under the

command of Count Rochambeau. In South Carolina General Greene was in command, and won the victory of Cowpens. The enemy no longer assumed the aggressive. The battle of Guilford Court-House, North Carolina, was one of the

ROBERT MORRIS.

most severe of the war, but it was a victory for neither side. That battle was fought in March, Cowpens in January. The patriot army of the South was under the command of General Nathaniel Greene, of Rhode Island, one of the bravest and most strategic of American soldiers. He was one of the few generals of the revolution who thoroughly understood the science of war, and he was self-taught. General Greene was born in 1742. After the war he engaged in cotton raising in Georgia. He died on his plantation in 1786.

The British general at Cowpens was Bannastre Tarleton; at Guilford, Cornwallis himself was in command. The last battle of the war in the Carolinas was fought at Eutaw Springs on the 8th of September. The Continentals were repulsed. During the summer Cornwallis committed depredations in Virginia, now for the first time during the war become the field of actual operations. La Fayette was in command of the Virginia district. Washington planned a blow for

COUNT DE ROCHAMBEAU.

the recovery of New York, where Clinton still held possession, but finding that the French fleet would soon enter the Chesapeake, he changed his plan, still keeping up the appearance of preparations for New York. In the meanwhile, Cornwallis was fortifying himself at

COLONEL TARLETON.

Yorktown. When Clinton discovered the design of Washington, he attempted to divert him from his purpose by sending the traitor Arnold against New London, Connecticut. The town was burnt, its fort, Griswold, taken and its gallant defenders ruthlessly massacred after they had surrendered. The fall of Fort Griswold and New London closed operations at the North. The last move upon the chessboard was about to be made in Virginia.

The French fleet, under Count De Grasse, blockaded the York and James rivers, while the French and American forces on the land completed the investiture of Yorktown. Hemmed in on every side, Cornwallis could not escape, and on the 9th of October cannonading commenced. The British held out until the 19th day of the month, when Cornwallis surrendered to Washington his sword and his army, about 10,000 men.

LORD CORNWALLIS.

On both sides it was felt that the end had come. Neither army had any heart for further bloodshed. Both may be said to have rested on their arms for the negotiation of terms of peace. In

November of the next year a provisional treaty was signed. The cessation of hostilities was formally announced in April, 1783. On the third day of the following September the final treaty was signed at Paris, nearly two years after the war had virtually closed. In these days of electricity and steam everything would have been arranged in two months.

COUNT DE GRASSE.

It was in December, 1775, that the Continental Congress passed a bill creating a navy, with Ezekiel Hopkins in command of it. Thirteen vessels were authorized. They were built, but were of no service. All were captured by the British or destroyed, to keep them out of British hands. But American waters swarmed with privateers. Hundreds of British ships were captured. The Raphael Semmes of the Revolutionary War was Paul Jones, who with his *Bon Homme Richard*, carrying forty guns, captured the British *Serapis*, carrying forty-four guns. The engagement occurred off the coast of Scotland in the fall of 1779.

SIEGE OF YORKTOWN.

The ratification of the articles of confederation was completed the same year that Cornwallis surrendered. But even then the states did not form a nation, and it was a very grave question whether the Union would be dissolved or perpetuated. In the very act of disbanding the army this issue was raised in a practical, if somewhat indirect, way. The order for its disbandment was given by Congress after the ratification of the final treaty, and three weeks before the British evacuated New York. Washington took leave of his comrades in a very appropriate address on the 23d of December, resigned his commission and retired to his plantation at Mount Vernon. All that was easy enough, but what must be done to pay the arrearages of the soldiers and defray the war debt? Congress had no power to levy the necessary taxes, and the experiment of an irredeemable paper money had been carried so far that the Continental currency was worthless. The individual states were asked to meet the demand. This was found to be a very unsatisfactory reliance.

JOHN PAUL JONES.

The inadequacy of the confederation to the demands of the country led to the holding of a convention called, theoretically, to amend the existing articles of confederation, but practically, as it proved, for the framing of a radically different organic law, the constitution under which *these* United States became *the* United States. George Washington presided over that pre-eminently important deliberative body. It met at Philadelphia, and completed its work September 17, 1787. In several states there was considerable opposition to its ratification, but it was adopted and went into operation March 4, 1789, without having received the indorsement of North Carolina or Rhode Island.

From July 4, 1776, to March 4, 1789, was the period during which the foundations of the great republic were laid. During all that time the statesmanship of the country was severely tested, and the triumphs of peace were greater than those of war. Other armies have fought as bravely, but no land was ever blessed with such a truly sublime array of great statesmen appearing upon the stage of action at the same period. At its head stood the venerable Franklin with the august Washington at his side, while the youthful Hamilton and Madison not only helped as leaders to frame the Constitution, but by their pens in its advocacy to secure its adoption. In all the history of mankind can be found no crisis more critical and important than the one through which the United States passed in developing from thirteen colonies into a Confederation, and then into a Union solemnly declared to be perpetual.

THE YOUNG REPUBLIC.

CHAPTER LXXIX.

THE YOUTH OF THIS REPUBLIC—WASHINGTON AND HIS INAUGURATION—THE CAPITAL—INDIANS AND WHISKY—THE "MONROE DOCTRINE"—FINANCE—THE NATIONAL BANK—FIRST CENSUS—NEW STATES AND SLAVERY—JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION—JEFFERSON—BURR AND HAMILTON—THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE—WAR OF 1812—GENERAL DEARBORN—NAVAL BATTLES—LAND BATTLES—LUNDY'S LANE AND PLATTSBURG—JACKSON AND NEW ORLEANS—BURNING OF WASHINGTON—THE TREATY—ALGERINE PIRACY—REVIEW OF THE PERIOD.

NATIONS, like individuals, have their infancy, childhood, youth, majority and senility. We have now reached the adolescent period of American history, and are to trace in this chapter the progress of the United States in its teens, from March 4, 1789, to March 4, 1817.

George Washington was elected the first President of the United States, practically without opposition, to take the office March 4, 1789, the day appointed for the Constitution to go into effect. John Adams was elected Vice-President. Each was re-elected four years later without serious opposition.

Although the inauguration of Washington should have occurred on the 4th of March, it was not until April 30 that a quorum of the first Congress under the Constitution had convened at New York, the temporary capital, and it was on the latter date that the oath of office was administed.

One of the first things to be done by Congress was to select a permanent capital. It was decided to avoid all the cities, and even all the states, by a novel plan. A tract ten miles square on the Potomac river, partly in Virginia and partly in Maryland, was selected. It was ceded to the United States so far as concerned jurisdiction, and became known as the District of Columbia. The selection of the site was virtually left to President Washington, in whose honor the capital itself was named. To allow suitable buildings to be erected, Congress fixed the capital at Philadelphia for ten years.

During Washington's administration occurred an extensive Indian war between the Ohio and Wabash rivers. The tribes in that region were somewhat given to agriculture, but they were still savages and bitterly hostile to the westward expansion of the area of civilization. Generals Harrison and St. Clair were defeated by the Indians, but General Wayne finally won a complete victory. In 1795 a treaty was made which quieted the Indian title to the Ohio valley. About the same time occurred the Whisky Insurrection in the Monongahela valley, Western Pennsylvania. The distillation of whisky

GENERAL WAYNE.

was a prominent industry in that section, and the tax levied upon it during the administration of Washington was strenuously resisted. The military was called out and the insurgents yielded. Washington exhibited remarkable firmness and wisdom also in preventing the French minister involving this country in the interminable wars of Europe. The so-called "Monroe Doctrine" should be known as "Washington's policy." The fact that James Monroe was minister to France at the time connected his name with the doctrine. The facts are these: When France, the great national friend of America, was involved in war with other European powers, incident to the French Revolution, there was a very strong feeling in this country in favor of helping her. There was much to be said in support of the policy. But it was decided that then and always this republic would stand aloof from complication in the wars of other nations. No foreign power must meddle with our affairs, nor will we interfere with theirs. The wisdom of this policy was not apparent to all at the time. On the contrary, it occasioned intense party feeling. The Federalists, as the party of Washington, Adams, Hamilton and Jay was called, were bitterly denounced by the Republican party of Jefferson, Burr and Madison. But the sober second-thought of the people approved it. The Federalists sacrificed the political advantages of their position by the passage of alien and sedition laws, the former to restrict personal liberty, the latter to restrain the liberties of the press. The first great problem, however, was financial. Governeur Morris and Alexander Hamilton were the great financiers of their day. It was assumed that the Continental money, the greenbacks of the Revolution, could never be redeemed. That was an act of repudiation unjustifiable, but not inexplicable. The ties of the Union were so frail that it was feared that to levy the tax necessary to the redemption of the paper money would snap them asunder. All other debts contracted by the Continental Congress were faithfully paid, also all state debts contracted in support of the war.

INAUGURATION OF WASHINGTON.

The great measure of Hamilton was the creation of a national bank; not of a system of banks, such as

the country now has, but one stupendous institution, modeled after the Bank of England. The United States Bank was located at Philadelphia. The Bank of England went into operation in 1695, the United States Bank was chartered in 1791, its charter to hold for twenty years. It was not renewed at its expiration, but was in 1816, to go into effect January 1, 1817, this renewal occasioning but very little controversy compared with the subsequent Jacksonian agitation of the subject.

The first census was taken in 1790. It was found that the population of the nation was 3,929,214. Of these 700,000 were slaves. The census is taken every ten years. It was during Washington's administration that John Jay negotiated a second treaty with England, under which some things left indefinite by the treaty of Paris were settled, but others were still left open, destined to be settled at the cannon's mouth. It was also during his administration that Vermont, Kentucky and Tennessee were added to the Union, and the Northwest territory organized under an ordinance forbidding the extension of slavery north of the Ohio River.

The administration of John Adams can hardly be said to have had any individuality. His four years were a continuation of Washington's eight. The Federalists averted war with England by what seemed to the Republicans ingratitude and meanness to France. Jefferson and Burr were the leaders of the latter party, as Adams and Hamilton were of the former. George Washington strongly leaned toward Federalism, but he never stooped to be a party leader.

In 1800 the people decided in favor of a change. The Federalists had been in power all the twelve years of constitutional government, and now the other side had a chance. Jefferson was elected President and Burr vice-President. Jefferson was re-elected in 1804 by an overwhelming majority. Hitherto the government had been aristocratic, but Jefferson was perfectly simple and unostentatious in his habits. He was a man of the people. The duel between Burr and Hamilton, the rival leaders in New York, was the culmination of the party animosity of the time. Burr challenged his rival, and according to the code of honor then recognized, Hamilton could not do otherwise than accept. The result was fatal to the life of Hamilton and the reputation of Burr. Public indignation was aroused much as it was by the assassination of President Garfield by Guiteau.

AARON BURR.

The most notable feature of Jefferson's administration was the Louisiana Purchase. When this nation came into national existence Spain and France were in possession of Florida and Louisiana, the latter including the region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. The acquisition of all that area was secured by diplomacy and purchase. To the French in their war with England New Orleans and the Gulf of Mexico were a source of weakness, and the emperor made the sale as a stroke of military policy in 1803. It may be added that the direct purchase money paid by the United States for territorial acquisitions foots up as follows: Florida, $5,000,000; Louisiana, $15,000,000; California and other possessions from Mexico, $18,500,000; total, $38,500,000.

The English claimed the right to search American vessels, and impress into her service in time of war British subjects found on board. In retaliation the French claimed the same right. Our government protested, and at last declared war against England in support of the protest. That war was not actually begun until June, 1812, near the close of Madison's first term as President, but it had been imminent, almost certain, ever since the Republicans came into power upon the overthrow of the Federalists. When it finally came, the Federalists bitterly resisted it. It never ceased to be somewhat of a division line between the parties, although it is a well-established political fact that no party can afford to antagonize a war after it has once been declared, and if it does, even to a limited extent, the result will be fatal to it. The Federal party was utterly destroyed by the war of 1812.

GENERAL DEARBORN.

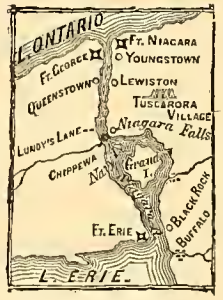
General Dearborn of Massachusetts was the first commander-in-chief in that war, under the President, who, by virtue of his office, held that position. No President ever took the field in

person. Dearborn's policy was to take Canada, but now, as in the Revolutionary War, that plan failed. In the war of independence the colonies had no navy of any consequence of their own, but in the second British war the navy took a conspicuous part. A great many English vessels were captured. The important naval battle was fought on Lake Erie, and the victory wonby the gallant young Commodore Perry, who sent to General Harrison the memorable report, "We have met the enemy and they are ours." Commodore Lawrence of frigate *Chesapeake* had an encounter with the English frigate *Shannon* off Boston which proved disastrous, but as the brave Commodore fell mortally wounded, he shouted, "Don't give up the ship." These two brief sentences served to stimulate the enthusiasm of the whole nation. There were nineteen naval battles, and in fourteen of them the Americans were successful. Commodore Stewart, grandfather of the great Irish land-leaguer Parnell, with the American frigate *Constitution,* successfully engaged two British ships off Madeira.

There were twenty-two land battles. The most humiliating feature of the war was the surrender of Detroit to the British by General Hull, August 16, 1812. By that unnecessary cowardice the English gained control of Michigan, and if Perry had been beaten on Lake Erie a year later, they would have been masters of the lakes and the cities upon their shores. Of these twenty-two battles the Americans won fourteen. For the most part these battles were near the lakes, extending from Plattsburg on Lake Champlain and Sackett's Harbor on Ontario, to Detroit, then the extreme limit of western civilization. But Fort McHenry, which guards Baltimore, was subjected to a terrible bombardment from sixteen British ships, September 13, 1814. The failure of that assault called out the popular song, "The Star Spangled Banner," from the pen of Francis S. Key, a Marylander, then detained as a prisoner on one of the English vessels of the bombarding fleet. It is worthy of remark that the two most spirited and brilliant military songs in American literature were written by Marylanders, the second being "My Maryland" by Mr. Randall.

CAPTAIN LAWRENCE.

The only really eminent land engagement of that war was the battle of New Orleans, January 8, 1815, some time after the treaty of peace had been signed, but before it had become known in this country. That battle, with its prelude of December 31, alone shed luster upon the American army, in distinction from the navy. Had it not been for New Orleans, the second war with England would have been accounted, and justly, as an American defeat. There were, however, some brilliant feats of arms before that post-treaty battle. Two of them deserve special notice—Lundy's Lane and Plattsburg. The former was fought on the shore of Lake Ontario, July 25, 1814. General Brown was in command, with General Winfield Scott next in rank. The latter led the advance. He and Brown were both wounded, but the enemy were defeated, each side losing about 800 men. "That battle" says Ingersoll in his historical sketches, "has never been appreciated as it ought to be. The victory was the resurrection, or birth, of American arms. The charm of British military invincibility was as effectually broken by a single brigade or that of naval supremacy by a single frigate, as much as if a large army or fleet



NIAGARA FRONTIER.

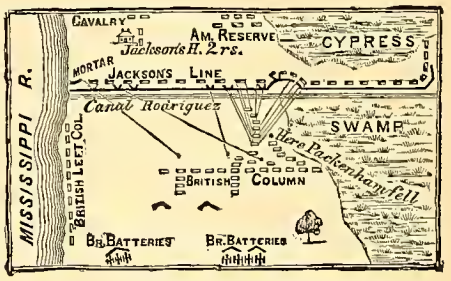
had been the agent."

GENERAL BROWN.

Another writer says of the battle of Plattsburg, fought September 11th of the same year: "In September, Sir George Prevost, at the head of fourteen thousand men, marched against Macomb, who had only a few hundred men, and, at the same time, the British fleet on Lake Champlain, commanded by Commodore Downie, sailed to attack the American fleet under Commodore MacDonough. While the British, from their batteries, commenced on the land, their fleet engaged MacDonough's vessels which were at anchor in the bay of Plattsburg. In a little more than two hours MacDonough gained a complete victory. The fire from the land batteries then slackened, and, at nightfall, Prevost made a hasty retreat, having lost in killed, wounded and desertions, about twenty-five hundred men."

Early in the war the English had secured the co-operation of disaffected Indians in Alabama and Florida, especially the Seminoles, and General Andrew Jackson had been sent south to hold the savages and their instigators in check. Pensacola was then a Spanish port, but the British had been allowed to occupy it the same as if it were a part of the British empire. Finally, Jackson, who was in command at Mobile, marched upon Pensacola with three thousand men, seized it and drove out the English. That was late in 1814. Soon after, he learned that the enemy proposed to take New Orleans in retaliation. He lost no time in marching to its defense. What followed is well told by Anderson, and we quote from him: "Toward the middle of December a British squadron entered Lake Borgne, carrying 12,000 troops, commanded by Sir Edward Pakenham, the first object of the expedition being to capture New Orleans. On the 14th a flotilla of American gunboats was compelled to surrender, and, on the 23d Jackson made a spirited, though ineffectual, attack upon an encampment of the enemy's vanguard. On the 28th, and again on the first day of the new year, the British were unsuccessful in cannonading the intrenchments which Jackson had thrown up four miles from the city. On the 8th of January, 1815, the British made a general advance against the enemy's intrenchments; but volley after volley was poured upon them with such terrible effect, that they were compelled to flee. Pakenham was slain, and two thousand of his men were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. The Americans lost only seven killed and six wounded." This was the first and last time in the world's history that the supreme battle of a war was fought after peace had been negotiated.

One more incident of this war as we pass on to the treaty itself. The British, under General Ross, took the national capital, August 24, 1814, and fired the public buildings. He had the same day defeated an American force of 3,500 at Blandensburg, his own army numbering 5,000. The American forces were under the command of General Winder. In his history of this war Ingersoll says of this vandalism, "At a small beer-



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

house opposite to the Treasury, fire was procured with which the Treasury and then the President's house were fired. Before setting fire to the latter building, it was ransacked for booty, especially for objects of curiosity, to be carried off as spoils. After incendiarism had done its worst, both at the President's house and the Navy-Yard, indiscriminate pillage closed the scene."

The treaty of peace negotiated by John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay and their associates, was absolutely silent about the encroachments upon American commerce and the impressment of American seamen, the two cardinal issues of the war. But the country was in such good humor over the battle of New Orleans, and so eager for peace, that the treaty was ratified. Everybody felt that the United States had amply demonstrated its prowess on land and sea, that henceforth its rights would be respected by foreign governments, and this proved to be the case. Substantially, then, the war of 1812 completed what the Revolutionary struggle had begun.

After the second, and we may hope the last war with England, our country, then more than now interested in the carrying trade upon the high seas, turned its attention to Algerine piracy. The gallant Decatur was sent to the Mediterranean with a naval force to demand of the Dey of Algiers the release of the Americans captured and held for ransom. He captured two large Algerine vessels and then secured the object of his misson, also treaties of a satisfactory nature from the neighboring Barbary States, Tunis and Tripoli. European commercial nations were enthusiastic in praise of the American navy. Earlier in the century Tripoli had declared war against the United States and captured and sold into slavery the crew of the frigate Philadelphia. The evil of Mediterranean piracy was effectually cured by the dauntless Decatur. This gallant sailor fell, mortally wounded, in a duel with Commodore Barron, in 1820.

JACKSON AT NEW ORLEANS.

LIEUTENANT DECATUR.

THE PERIOD OF COMPROMISE.

CHAPTER LXXX.

NON-PARTISAN AND NON-SECTIONAL SLAVERY—THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE—THE COTTON GIN—THE TARIFF QUESTION—CLAY, WEBSTER AND CALHOUN—JOHN QUINCY ADAMS—GENERAL JACKSON AND HIS POLICY—HIS PROTEGE AND THE PANIC OF 1837—"TIPPECANOE AND TYLER TOO"—ANNEXATION OF TEXAS—THE MEXICAN WAR—TAYLOR AND FILLMORE—THE OMNIBUS BILL—SCOTT AND PIERCE—REPEAL OF THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE—SEWARD, SUMNER AND DOUGLAS—BUCHANAN AND FREMONT—FROM COMPROMISE TO CONFLICT.

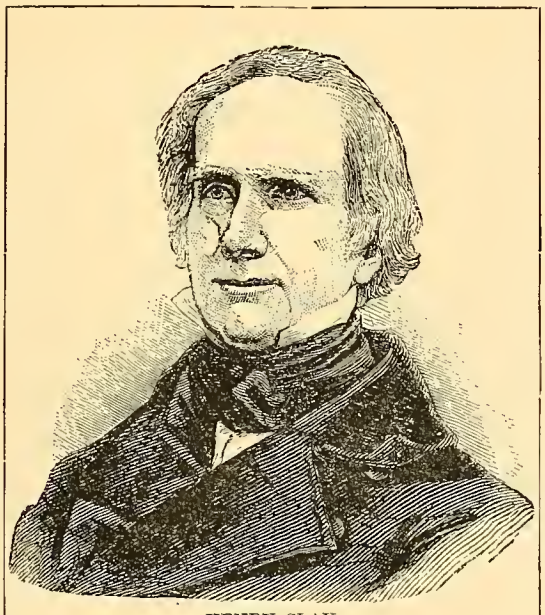
THE war of 1812 went out in such a perfect and unexpected blaze of glory that when the excitement had passed by, the Federal party was missed. It has never been found since. Mr. Monroe, an amiable gentleman of fair ability, a protege of Jefferson, was elected to the presidency two terms in succession. He was indeed a Republican, but his elections were not party victories. Neither were they the result of a compromise. The two parties had come to a final struggle over war with England, and the one which had suffered defeat had the grace and good sense to "step down and out," not with any blare of horns or waving of banners, but so very quietly that "no man knoweth of [its] grave to this day." It simply faded out.

The compromise did, indeed, begin during the Monroe administration, but it related to the future rather than the past, the future being that great question of slavery, hitherto in no sense a political issue. The Northwest Ordinance, a very important anti-slavery measure, was neither partisan nor sectional. The slaveholding state of Virginia voluntarily surrendered to the general government all claim to the territory west of the Ohio River, and there was hardly any objection to the prohibition of slavery therein. That prohibition fairly represented the opinion prevailing at that time throughout the country that the institution of involuntary labor was an evil to be gradually removed by the voluntary action of the states in which it existed. Originally the institution existed, to a limited extent, over nearly the entire North, as well as South.

The question of slavery first came before Congress in a way to provoke controversy in connection with the admission of Missouri into the Union, 1820. That state and Maine, the latter an offshoot from Massachusetts, both applied for admission into the Union the same year. Previous to that time territories had been admitted to the Union and raised to the dignity of states whenever their population warranted it and admission was sought in due form. Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Louisiana, Mississippi, Indiana, Illinois and Alabama had knocked and been admitted without controversy. Maine was admitted March 15, twelve days after the passage of

the Missouri Compromise Bill. Missouri itself came into the Union in August of the year following, under the operation of the compromise.

The raising of this issue was very largely due to the cotton gin, a "Yankee notion," invented by Eli Whitney. That great invention dates from 1792, but its revolutionary effect was the work of time. By its aid one man could gin, or free from seeds, as much cotton as five hundred men could without it. Under its influence labor in the cotton states became highly profitable, and the institution of slavery (without which, it was thought cotton could not be raised in America so as to compete with British India) acquired a hold which it had not before possessed upon the people of the cotton states.



HENRY CLAY.

After a great deal of agitation it was agreed that Missouri should come in, but that slavery should not be allowed in any territory north of 36° 30′, except in the case of Missouri, a very small part of which was above that line. This compromise was supposed to be a final settlement of the slavery question as a national issue. The compromise was not disturbed until the Nebraska bill of 1854 came up. Sectionalism did not die out, but was in abeyance until 1828, when the tariff question revived it.

The North with its manufactures demanded protection; the South with its great staple of export, cotton, demanded free trade. Webster, originally opposed to the tariff system, became a champion of it, the interest of his state, Massachusetts, demanding it. Henry Clay was the especial champion of protection, which he called "the American system." John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, was the leader of the uncompromising Southern element. These three names will be forever associated. They form the great triumvirate of the compromise period.

Clay was born in Virginia in 1777. His early education was meager. Natural eloquence drew him into the legal profession, and as early as 1806 the legislature of Kentucky, to which state he early removed, sent him to the United States Senate. He filled many places of honor, being in the public service almost constantly until his death, 1852, for the most part serving in Congress. He was speaker of the House several times. He was a candidate for President repeatedly, being the father and favorite of the Whig party. Webster was born in New Hampshire in 1782. He received a collegiate education. His political career began in 1812, when he was elected to Congress. That was in his native state. From 1816 to 1823 he practiced his profession at Boston, acquiring the highest rank as a lawyer. From that time until his death, 1852, he was almost wholly devoted to public affairs, most of the time in the senate. He aspired to the presidency, but never received the nomination of his party, the Whig. Calhoun was born in South Carolina in 1782. He graduated at Yale College. In 1808 his public life began, by his election to the legislature of his native state. He then served six years in the National House of Representatives. His next position was that of Secretary of War, followed by that of Vice-President. He aspired to the presidency, but was not a favorite with the autocrat of his party, Andrew Jackson, and in the nullification movement in South Carolina he rendered himself unpopular to the country at large. He was the idol of his state, and from that time until his death (1850) he was content to represent that commonwealth in the senate of the United States. For about a year, however, he served as Secretary of State under President Tyler. Calhoun was not a compromiser. He believed in slavery and the right of secession, never hesitating to avow his sentiments and advocate them. His private life was without a stain. Not as persuasive as Clay nor as sublime as Webster, he

was in many respects their intellectual peer. American politics reached its highest point of personal ability in those Titans.

In the year 1824 occurred the presidential election which resulted in the choice of John Quincy Adams for President and John C. Calhoun for Vice-President, a combination peculiarly incongruous in the light of subsequent events. The electors did not elect, and the matter was settled by Congress. Adams had for his Secretary of State Henry Clay. His administration was a most excellent one. Mr. Adams was a very great statesman, but he was not a politician, and he failed to build up a political

Daniel Webster

party. The opportunity was peculiarly favorable for so doing, but he lacked the qualifications of an organizer. It was during his term of office that the Erie canal was built, and the construction of railways began. The country prospered and every interest developed rapidly.

The seventh President of the United States, Andrew Jackson, was one of the most strongly individual characters in American annals. The hero of New Orleans, his hold upon the popular heart was peculiarly tenacious. Ignorant, rough, and often unreasonable, he never faltered in what he conceived to be his duty, nor did he hesitate to employ freely the power of his office to build up a political party with himself as its center. A patriot, but not a statesman, he was the chief of politicians.

The great features of Jackson's administration were, first, his unyielding and fatal opposition to a renewal of the charter of the national banks; second, the crushing of nullification or secession, in South Carolina; third, the creation of the Democratic party; fourth, the introduction into the civil service of the pernicious practice of distributing offices in reward for partisan and personal services. He did not originate the phrase, "to the victors belong the spoils," but he did establish the system,

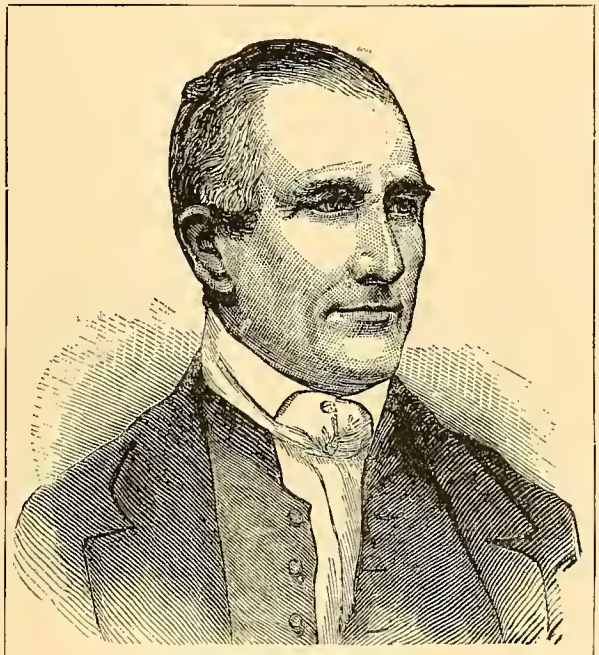
JOHN C. CALHOUN.

and that so firmly that it has survived all the vicissitudes of party.

Of all the many important events of Jackson's memorable career, the most remarkable was the promptness with which he met nullification in the Palmetto State. The additional duties on imports which gave such grievous offense were levied in 1832. A state convention held at Charleston soon after declared this act null and void, and prepared to resist its enforcement. The state legislature made no secret of a determination to secede if the law was executed. A man-of-war, with General Scott and a few soldiers on board, quelled the storm without the shedding of blood. Soon after, Mr. Clay, true

to his instincts as a pacifier, secured the passage of a bill providing for a scaling down of duties.

The next president, Martin Van Buren, of New York, was a wily politician, the convenient and crafty lieutenant of Jackson in all his political movements. In the first year of his administration, 1837, the country was whelmed in bankruptcy. That panic was largely due to the refusal of Jackson to sign the bill for renewing the charter of the national banks. His pet scheme was the Independent Treasury, or Sub-Treasury system, by which the government should keep in its own vaults the public money. The hard times had somewhat abated when the next presidential election occurred (1840), but the memory of the panic was fresh, and the demand for a change was imperious.



GENERAL SAM HOUSTON.

The campaign of 1840 was very exciting. The Whigs dropped their regular candidate, Clay, and took up General Harrison. He had rendered good service in the war of 1812, but better still in Indian warfare. He was the hero of the brilliant affair at Tippecanoe, Indiana, near Lafayette, which broke up the confederacy of Tecumseh and ended the apprehension of an Indian war. That was about thirty years before he was a candidate for President, but it served the purposes of the campaign.

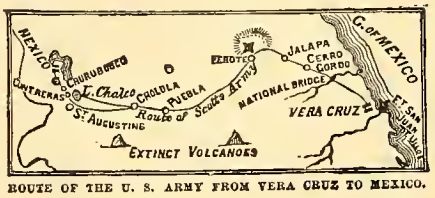
His death, one month after his inauguration, brought to the presidency John Tyler, the first of the Presidents elected by the Messenger of Death. He proved unfaithful to the party which elected him, and covered himself with reproach. The tariff question was a leading issue of the campaign, and he repudiated the protective policy which was the distinguishing doctrine of the Whigs. The only redeeming feature of Tyler's administration was the retention of Daniel Webster as Secretary of State, and the negotiation by him of a treaty with England which fixed amicably the boundaries between the United States and British America, both in the northeast and the northwest.

The bill annexing Texas to the Union was passed three days before the Tyler administration closed, but it was none the less the great issue in the presidential election of 1844, which resulted in the defeat of Clay and the election of James K. Polk, of Tennessee. Texas was originally a part of Mexico. It had been largely settled by citizens of the United States. The people rebelled and seceded from Mexico, General Sam Houston being the leader in the Texan war of independence. The battle of San Jacinto, resulting in the capture of Santa Anna, then President of Mexico, Houston consented to release him only on condition that the independence of Texas should be recognized. The condition was complied with. Not long after Texas asked to be annexed to the United States. Nations usually covet territorial acquisition, but in this case the North opposed it because the area of slavery would be extended thereby. The election of Polk settled the matter affirmatively.

WINFIELD SCOTT IN 1865.

It was during the administration of Polk that the war between Mexico and the United States was waged, growing out of the annexation of Texas, largely, and the desire of the South for an enlarged area. There were thirteen battles during that war, the first being fought

at Palo Alto, May 8, 1846, and the last at Huamantla, October 9, 1847. In all the United States troops were victorious. General Taylor won the victories of Palo Alto, Monterey, Palma and Buena Vista; General Scott those of Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Cherubusco and Chapultepec. Many of the names rendered famous in the civil war appear among the subordinate officers of that campaign. Among the volunteer generals of that war was Franklin Pierce, afterwards President of the United States.



ROUTE OF THE U. S. ARMY FROM VERA CRUZ TO MEXICO.

The treaty of peace was signed February 2, 1848. By its terms all the territory north of the Rio Grande, including New Mexico and California, should thereafter belong to the United States. Instead of exacting, in addition to this, a sum of money, as Germany did of France a few years ago, the victor agreed to pay the vanquished $15,000,000 and assume debts amounting to about $3,000,000. At a later period, there having arisen some dispute as to the boundary, the United States paid Mexico $10,000,000 more in final settlement of the whole matter.

GENERAL SCOTT'S ENTRY INTO MEXICO.

The Whigs had denounced the Mexican war in severest terms, but no sooner was it over than they took up General Taylor as their candidate for the presidency, to the great chagrin of Clay and his especial friends. "Old Rough and Ready," as Taylor was called, had for his opponent General Cass of Michigan, and, on the Free-soil or Anti-slavery ticket, ex-President Van Buren. The latter hoped to so weaken Cass, whom he hated, that he would be defeated. In this he was successful, Taylor was elected, and with him Millard Fillmore of New York. The new, yet old, president died in the summer of 1850. His administration is almost a blank. Not so with that of Fillmore, during whose term of office the policy of compromise reached its culmination.

The ill-feeling between the North and the South on slavery and the questions growing out of it, was such as to seriously threaten the Union. Henry Clay, true to his life-work, came forward in 1850 with what was known as his "Omnibus Bill," providing, first, that California should be admitted as a free state; second, that if new states formed by the division of Texas should knock for admission they should be admitted; third, Utah and Mexico to be organized as territories; fourth, the claim of Texas to New Mexico to be purchased by the general government for $10,000,000; fifth, the slave trade to be forbidden in the District of Columbia; sixth, slaves escaping to free states to be arrested and restored to their masters. This measure received the support of both of the two great parties. But it failed of the desired effect. At the South the admission of California was looked upon as the supreme feature of the bill, and the North forgot everything else in fierce indignation over the fugitive slave law. The two sections were thus all the more unfriendly. Compromise had been the ruling policy of the government for thirty years, and all to no conciliatory purpose.

The next presidential election was the last in which the Whig party was ever to take part. Born of compromise, it died with it. In 1852 the Whigs had for standard-bearer General Winfield Scott, the hero of two wars, but he was utterly routed by General Pierce, who had nothing to recommend him to the people. It was not in any sense a personal campaign. The country was dissatisfied with both parties, but of the two evils the people chose the one least conspicuous for compromise. That was

the last national election ever held at which both of the leading parties attempted to win the favor of both sections of the country

There had long been a distinctively anti-slavery party at the North, with now and then a representative in congress; but its strength was inconsiderable as compared with the other two parties. In 1840, and again in 1844, the Abolitionists had cast their votes for electors pledged to support James G. Birney for president. In 1848, under the lead of Van Buren, and again in 1852, under the lead of John P. Hale, the Free-Soil party had secured the anti-slavery vote, gaining a little each time, but not much.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD.

The election of Pierce seemed to be the permanent triumph of the pro-slavery party.

Early in 1854 Senator Douglas of Illinois, Chairman of the Committee on Territories, introduced the Kansas-Nebraska Bill which was, in effect, the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. A fierce conflict arose. The Whig party, as if conscious that its mission of conciliation was over, went the way of the Federal party, to which it had fallen heir. It died of inanition, and with the passage of the bill introduced by Mr. Douglas (for after a hotly contested struggle in Congress it became a law) there was born the Republican party of the present day. It succeeded to the estate of the Whig organization without assuming its liabilities.

A new set of great men came to the front about this time to take the place of Clay, Webster and Calhoun. This triumvirate consisted of Wm. H. Seward of New York, Charles Sumner of Massachusetts and Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois.

Mr. Seward was a native of New York, born in 1801. He graduated at Union College and settled as a lawyer in Auburn, New York. His public career began in 1830, when he was elected to the State Senate. Subsequently he served as governor of the state. He was elected to the United States Senate as a representative of the anti-slavery wing of the Whig party, entering that body in time to take part against the compromise of 1850. He was the father,

CHARLES SUMNER.

more than any other man, of the Republican party. In 1860 he was a prominent candidate before the national convention of his party for the presidency, but was defeated by Mr. Lincoln. Upon the election of the latter Mr. Seward became Secretary of State, a position he occupied eight years, when his public career closed. Mr. Seward was at once a great statesman and a great politician. Mr. Sumner was the former, but not the latter. Happily, his native state, Massachusetts, required no wire-working to place in the Senate and keep there her greatest son, for such Mr. Sumner was for many years. Born in Boston in 1811, he was elected to the Senate of the United States at the age of forty, his first and only office. He remained in that body until

his death in 1874. During those twenty-three years he was the unfaltering friend of the black man. He was the most learned man ever identified with American politics. His eloquence was of a lofty nature and his character singularly free from taint.

STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS.

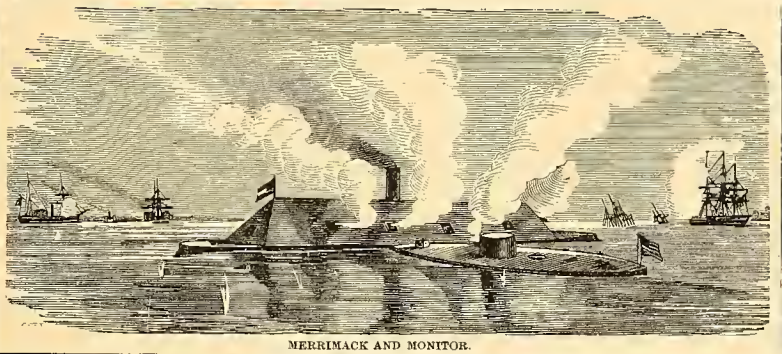
Douglas was a very different man from either of the other two. Uneducated, coarse and unscrupulous, he was a master of all the arts of politics. Born in Vermont in 1813, he entered Congress at the age of thirty as a Democratic representative from the state of Illinois. In 1847 he entered the Senate, and soon became the leader of his party in that body, where he remained until his death in 1861. In the fall of 1860 he was a candidate for the presidency. When the civil war began he was appointed a Major-General by President Lincoln. He was a staunch friend of the Union.

Although carried by the current of these three lives quite beyond the period of compromise, there is one more administration belonging to it, that of James Buchanan, the fifteenth President of the United States. His election in 1856 over the Republican nominee, Col. John C. Fremont, by a large majority, showed that the old regime was still potential. At that election, for the first time in the history of the republic, a presidential candidate nominated on the anti-slavery issue received Electoral College votes, and a good many of them, too, enough certainly to foreshadow plainly the result in 1860. The Buchanan administration was characterized by antagonism between the Executive and Congress on

J. C. Frémont.

all questions at issue between the two parties. Mr. Buchanan was willing to carry the policy of concession to the South to almost any length, in the hope of thereby averting civil war, while the Republicans scoffed at the threats of secession and braved all peril rather than consent to any extension of the area of slavery. Thus in that period, from 1857 to 1861, Compromise exhausted itself and developed by a natural process into Conflict.

THE PERIOD OF CONFLICT.



MERRIMACK AND MONITOR.

CHAPTER LXXXI.

POLITICAL CONFLICT—JOHN BROWN—1860—SECESSION—WAR BEGUN—BULL RUN—MCCLELLAN ON THE POTOMAC—MISSOURI—CLOSE OF 1861—1862—FORT DONELSON—PEA RIDGE—MERRIMACK AND MONITOR—PITTSBURG LANDING—NEW ORLEANS—ON THE POTOMAC AGAIN—YORKTOWN—BEFORE RICHMOND—COLORED TROOPS—GEN. POPE—ANTIETAM—FREDERICKSBURG AND BURNSIDE—EMANCIPATION—GETTYSBURG—VICKSBURG—CHATTANOOGA—NEW YORK RIOTS—ANDERSONVILLE—GRANT SUPREME—FORT PILLOW—BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS—SPOTTSYLVANIA—ATLANTA—MARCH TO THE SEA—THOMAS AND HOOD—PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION—FALL OF RICHMOND, AND SURRENDER OF LEE—OTHER SURRENDERS AND THE CAPTURE OF DAVIS—ASSASSINATION OF LINCOLN—SINKING OF THE ALABAMA, AND OTHER NAVAL ENGAGEMENTS—PERSONAL SKETCHES OF UNION HEROES—ANDREW JOHNSON—RECONSTRUCTION CONFLICT—IMPEACHMENT OF JOHNSON—ELECTION OF GRANT—KU-KLUX-KLAN—CLOSE OF THE GREAT CONFLICT.

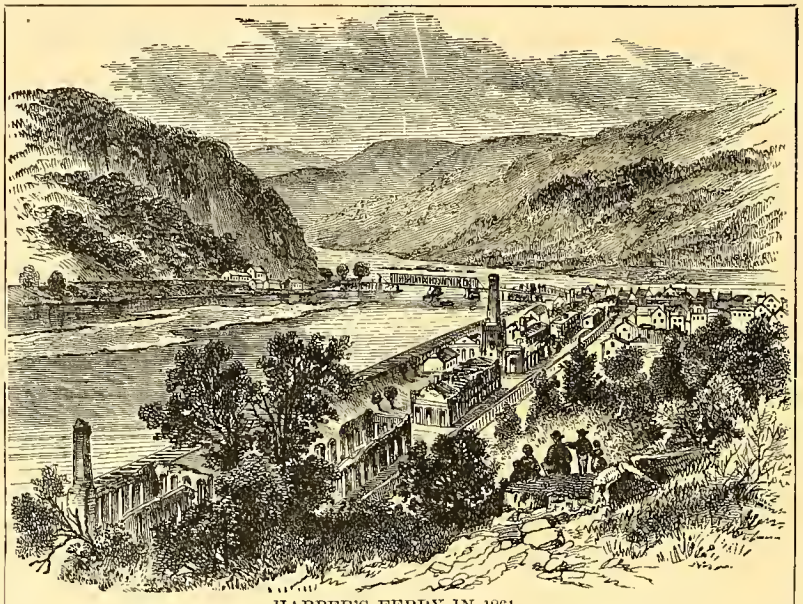
IN an important sense the great political conflict in the United States began with the organization of the Republican party. The Abolitionists, such as William Lloyd Garrison, Wendell Phillips, Birney, Whittier and Gerrit Smith, merely formed a skirmish line. The first bloody field was the territory of Kansas. Beyond the Missouri border was really fought the first campaign of the terrible war.

That Territory would have been open to the introduction of slavery under the Missouri Compromise, but the South demanded more than that. Slavery must be allowed in Nebraska also. In grasping for both, it lost both. No sooner was the old landmark of 1820 removed than Northern immigration poured into Kansas, well knowing that if the southern of those two territories was saved to free labor the other would follow as a matter of course. The South was no match for the North in supplying pioneers, and slave labor is illy adapted to frontier life. But the adjacent state of Missouri was unfriendly to the "Northern horde," and that was quite an advantage. There were numerous encounters between the two factions, and the Territory fully earned the designation of "Bleeding Kansas." It was not until the general appeal to the sword in 1861 that it ceased to be the especial victim of conflict, and even after that time it was subject to desolating raids.

Among those who flocked to Kansas to take part in the struggle there was "John Brown of Ossawattomie," as he was known in connection with that Territory. He was an Abolitionist of the intensest sort. Having remained in the far West until satisfied how the issue was to be decided, he came East and undertook to organize a slave insurrection. It was late in the fall of 1859 when he put his plan in execution. Harper's Ferry, Virginia, a wild gorge in the mountains, was selected as his rendezvous. With him were associated a few kindred spirits. They succeded in causing a tremendous excitement and alarm, but cannot be said to have struck a responsive chord in the negro heart. The idea that the

colored people were ripe for insurrection was a mistake. Brown had embarked in an enterprise which was utterly hopeless. He was soon taken prisoner, tried, convicted and hanged. Many at the North sympathized with him, and when the war between the states came, he was canonized as a martyr to liberty. The most popular and inspiring of all the war songs of the period was a wild chant in his honor.

The presidential election of 1860 was conducted on both sides of Mason and Dixon's line upon the theory that the time for compromise had gone by. Mr. Douglas was indeed the candidate of one wing of the Democracy, a wing that still clung to the hope of reconciliation, and Mr. Bell, of Kentucky, was the candidate of a movement to galvanize into life the dry bones of the old Whig party; but the favorite candidate of the South was John C. Breckenridge; of the North, Abraham Lincoln; and they represented, each in his way, what Mr. Seward very justly called "the irrepressible conflict." The latter received no votes at the South, the former carried no Northern state, and consequently Mr. Lincoln was elected.



HARPER'S FERRY IN 1861.

At the North it was supposed that the threats of secession would not be executed; at the South that the threats of coersion would not be carried out. Neither section really anticipated what was impending; still the spirit of hostility was so fully aroused that no considerations of prudence could have had weight and force.

The first state to pass an ordinance of secession was South Carolina. Other Southern States adopted the same measure early in the year following, and in February the "Confederate States of America" was formed, with Jefferson Davis as President, and Alexander H. Stephens as Vice-President. Before Mr. Lincoln became President the national troops had withdrawn from Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor. Seven states had seceded and a government in opposition to the United States had been fully organized and fairly launched at the South, President Buchanan doing nothing to arrest the progress of the movement. Mr. Lincoln was obliged to pass through Baltimore on his way to the capital in disguise. Abraham Lincoln was inaugurated March 4th, and on the twelfth of the next month Fort Sumter, Major Robert Anderson commandant, was fired upon. That was the first shot of the war. The South Carolinians were impatient of delay, and wished to fire the Southern heart. The same result followed in both sections. "To arms!" was all the cry. Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers three days after the first shot had been fired, and two days later Davis issued letters of marque and reprisal, which were at once followed by the blockade of Southern ports by the United States navy. In less than a month England had made haste to acknowledge the Confederate States as belligerents, and not mere insurgents and rebels. France, Spain and Portugal soon did the same. The first direct personal encounter of the war

ROBERT ANDERSON.

was in the streets of Baltimore. That city fully sympathized with the South, yet lay between the North and the national capital. It was on the nineteenth of April that some Massachusetts volunteers were fired upon as they passed through the streets of that city. The effect was to stimulate the patriotism of the North, and render still more remote all hope of reconciliation.

June 3 occurred a trivial battle at Philippi, which was a Confederate rout, and a week later the Union troops were repulsed at Big Bethel. Thus did the fortunes of war alternate for over a month, the Confederates routed at Boonesville, the Federals at Carthage. In the meanwhile Congress had met, July 4, in extra session, and both sides were eager for a battle upon a large scale. Each seemed to think that one great victory and all would be over. "On to Richmond" was the cry of the North; "On to Washington" of the South. The impatient public had not long to wait. July 21 witnessed the first great battle of the war, the first Bull Run, or Manassas, as it is called in the South. A slight skirmish at Centerville three days before had occurred. The Union forces were under the command of General McDowell; the Confederates were led by General Beauregard. Both armies fought desperately for six hours, when reinforcements coming to the aid of Beauregard, he won the day. The defeat was a rout. The demoralized volunteers, when once put to flight, became a frantic mob. But the victors were too much exhausted and crippled to march upon Washington, and no substantial and permanent advantage was gained. General Winfield Scott, who had been the master spirit in planning the battle, and McDowell, who had executed the plans, both retired, and General McClellan, who had achieved some small success in West Virginia, came to the fore as commander-in-chief. Congress called for 500,000 recruits, and appropriated $500,000,000 to defray the expenses of the war. The seriousness of the undertaking now for the first time dawned upon the public mind of the North. At the South the effect was deceptive. It was supposed that secession was an assured fact, and

FORT SUMTER IN 1860.

IRWIN M'DOWELL.

GEORGE B. M'CLELLAN.

could not long be delayed in its complete triumph. All the stories of Northern cowardice were confirmed. Thus victory was a great injury to the Southern cause, and a benefit, indirect, but very real, to the North.

JOHN C. FREMONT.

It is claimed by the Southern authorities that in the battle of Bull Run the Federal force was 60,000, the Confederate, 30,000. "The Confederate loss," says Derry, "was nearly three thousand killed and wounded, while the Federal army lost nearly five thousand killed, wounded and prisoners, twenty-eight cannon, ten battle-flags, five thousand muskets and five hundred thousand cartridges." The Northern estimate of the forces engaged places the number at about 40,000 each, and the losses at about 3,000 each. Nothing important was done during the remainder of that year at the East. Several minor battles were fought with see-saw results.

The only other military events of much importance during 1861 were in Missouri. A very determined effort was made to prevent that state from going out of the Union. It never did secede, in the regular way. An ordinance of secession was passed by a portion of the state legislature in November, 1861, but it was not binding, even upon those who held state fealty above national loyalty. In holding that part of the country in the Union, Generals Fremont, Sigel, Lyon and Grant bore prominent part, also the gallant Colonel Mulligan. The battle of Belmont (November 7), on the Cumberland River, opposite Columbus, Missouri, was the beginning of General Grant's victories, but it was a victory so far turned into defeat that he was finally glad to seek the shelter of his gun-boats.

NATHANIEL LYON.

CAPT. CHARLES WILKES.

The battle of Wilson's Creek, where the gallant Lyon fell, had occurred August 10, and was the most destructive engagement of the year, except Bull Run. It terminated favorably to the South, although very nearly an even thing.

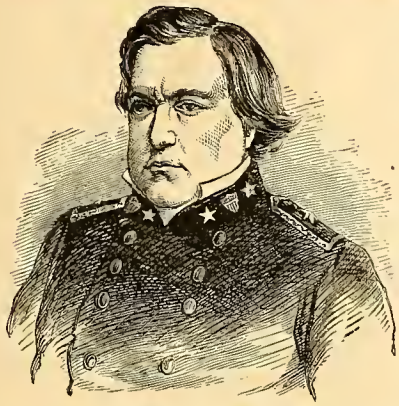
The year 1861 closed with the South in possession of several points of advantage, gained during the season. On that side was an army of 350,000; on the Northern, a force of 500,000. Missouri and Maryland were saved from seceding. Both could point to trophies, but neither had occasion for overweening confidence of ability to achieve final victory.

"The Trent affair" was the capture by Captain Wilkes, of the United States navy, of Mason and Slidell, representatives of the Confederacy, while on board the British steamer the *Trent*. It occurred November 8, and occasioned tremendous excitement in this country and in England. War between the two nations seemed imminent. But Secretary Seward calmed the waters by releasing the prisoners, taking care in so doing to secure from England a distinct repudiation of the right of search, the very issue which the war of 1812 involved but did not settle. American diplomacy won a brilliant victory, completing what the treaty of Ghent had left unsettled.

The first battle of 1862 was between a small force under Humphrey Marshall and a brigade, or hardly that, under Colonel James A. Garfield, at Prestonburg, Kentucky. Garfield won the day, and was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general on the strength of his gallantry on that occasion.

With this year began formidable naval operations in the West. Commodore Foote had a large flotilla

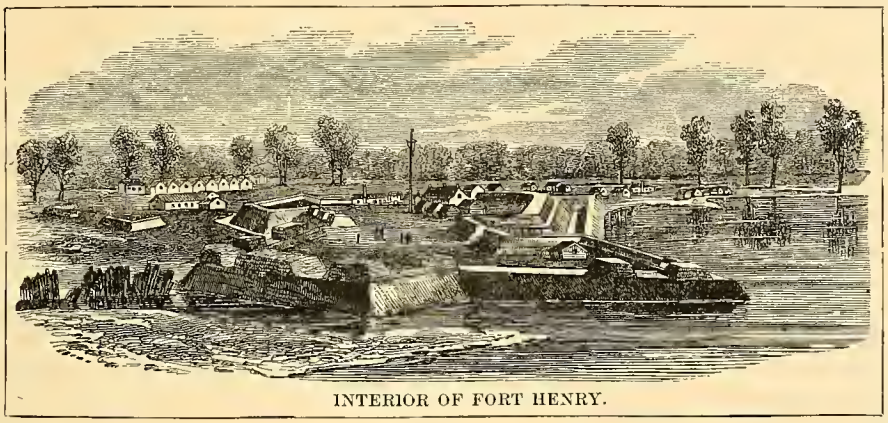
under his command which had been fitted out at St. Louis for service on the Mississippi and its tributaries February 6. Fort Henry was compelled to surrender, and ten days later Fort Donelson was at the mercy of Foote and Grant, acting in concert, Grant being in command of the department of West Tennessee. Buckner was in command of the fort. He opened negotiations for capitulation, when Grant made the memorable reply, "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately on your works." The terms were accepted and fifteen thousand prisoners fell into the hands of the captors. That capture, the result largely of Foote's gunboats, was the foundation of Grant's popularity. It placed his name in the head rank and occasioned many a prediction that he would prove the supreme hero of the war. Fort Donelson surrendered February 16.



HUMPHREY MARSHALL.

The next important event was the battle of Pea Ridge, or Elkhorn, Missouri. Both armies concentrated, the Confederates under Van Dorn, the Federals under Curtis. The battle began March 7, and was not terminated until the next morning. The Confederates were completely beaten, notwithstanding they fought with great bravery. The shattered remnants fled into Tennessee, joining Beauregard at Memphis. Curtis took up his headquarters at Springfield, Missouri. The next day occurred the fierce duel between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimack* in Hampton Roads. The former was a magnificent man-of-war, formerly the pride of the American navy; the latter was a

EARL VAN DORN.



INTERIOR OF FORT HENRY.

ANDREW H. FOOTE.

JOHN ERICSSON.

newly devised iron-clad and almost ball-proof gunboat, the invention of that great genius, John Ericsson. It is not too much to say that the success of the little *Monitor* on that occasion revolutionized naval architecture, for it signed the death warrant of modern vessels of war. If the *Merrimack* had not been arrested in its course it would have strewn the North Atlantic seaboard with desolation and havoc. The result of that encounter was an infinite relief to the national capital, which had been in great apprehension from an assault by water.

THE LEVEE AT NEW ORLEANS.

The battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, occurred April 6 and 7. Grant had over 30,000 men, and Buell was advancing from Nashville to his support. The Confederates were commanded by the brave and brilliant Gen. A. S. Johnston. He decided to attack Grant at Pittsburg Landing before he could be joined by Buell. Early in the morning the fight began, and at nightfall the Federals had been pushed very nearly into the river. It looked as if Grant was about to be completely used up. That night Buell arrived. It was another instance of "night or Blücher." There were no corresponding recruits for the attacking army, and the next morning the Confederates were compelled to fall back on Corinth. The losses on both sides were very heavy. Those on the Federal side were about 13,000. Among the Confederates who fell was Gen. A. S. Johnston himself. Alexander H. Stephens pronounced the loss irreparable, and Jefferson Davis placed the very highest estimate upon the greatness of the calamity.

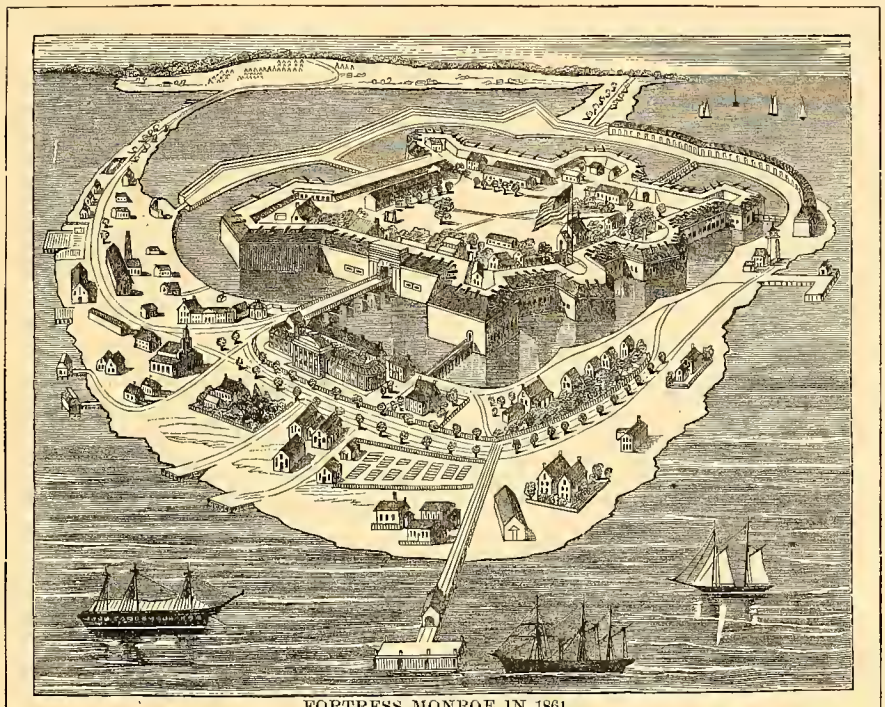
DON CARLOS BUELL.

April 25 New Orleans fell into the hands of the Federals. It was well fortified, and thought to be almost impregnable. The fleet which succeeded in forcing the surrender consisted of eight steamships, sixteen gunboats and twenty-one mortar-vessels. This large force had for co-operative support General Butler at Southwest Pass with 9,000 troops. The Confederate defense consisted of several strong fortifications and seventeen vessels, including several rams. The forts surrendered, the few vessels of the defense were destroyed, and the city was at the mercy of the assailants. General Butler took possession of the city. His administration of affairs in New Orleans gave great satisfaction at the North and aroused still greater indignation at the South. He was accused of robbing the people even of their spoons, and of playing the despot generally. The real secret of Butler's unpopularity was an order issued to the effect that any woman who should insult the flag, or show contempt for the Union, should be assumed to be a woman of the town plying her vocation.

BENJAMIN F. BUTLER.

It is now time to revisit the mud-bound army of the Potomac. The pressure of Northern public opinion was such that early in March President Lincoln ordered McClellan to move on Richmond. An abortive movement was made on the 10th of that month. About that time the Burnside expedition was sent to capture Newberg, North Carolina, a port on the Neuse river. A fortnight later McClellen changed

his base of operations against Richmond to Fortress Monroe. The Peninsula campaign may be said to have begun with the evacuation of Yorktown, May 3. The Confederates were behind "Quaker," or wooden guns. McClellan was deceived. He supposed the army then there under Magruder to be very large. He expected a long siege and a desperate resistance. Instead of that, the Confederates withdrew to Williamsburg without firing a shot. Two days later the battle of Williamsburg was fought. The Federal army of the Potomac had long been impatient for active service, and pursued the retreating Confederates with the utmost zeal, led by Generals Hooker, Kearney and Stoneman. Early in the morning of the 5th of May the fighting began The swollen condition of the streams impeded reinforcements and the forwarding of supplies. Hooker's division bore the brunt of the battle early in the day, but Kearney came to the rescue when most needed. Hancock ordered a bayonet charge that was promptly made, when a complete victory was won, and McClellan was able to move into Williamsburg. Instead of following up his advantage with vigor, he allowed J. E. Johnston to retire in good order to the opposite bank of the Chickahominy. On both sides it was thought that the decisive hour had come. There was the gravest apprehension at Richmond, the wildest exultation at Washington. But Johnston was equal to the emergency. He ordered Stonewall Jackson, then in the Shenandoah valley, to make a demonstration upon Washington. This diversion had an important effect in checking the further progress of the main army. Banks and his army were driven out of the valley by Jackson, and fell back to the Potomac. McClellan was within a few miles of Richmond. There was a battle at Hanover Court House, May 27. That, however, was hardly more than a skirmish as compared with the battles which were to follow, beginning with Fair Oaks, May 31, and closing with Mal-



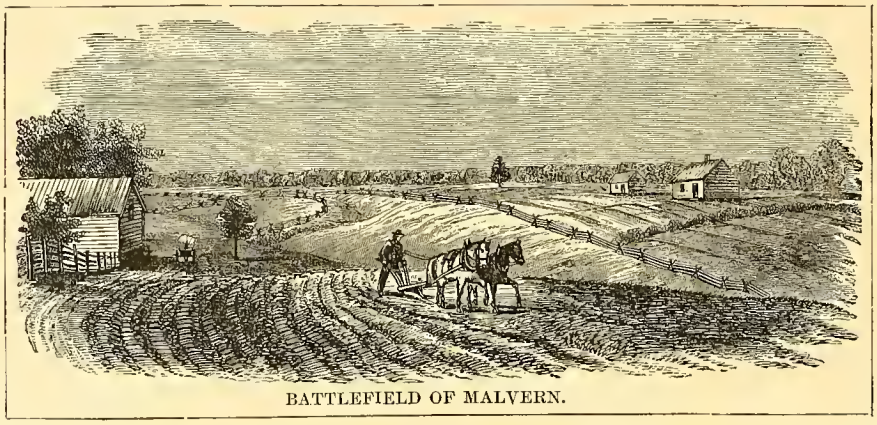
FORTRESS MONROE IN 1861.

J. BANKHEAD MAGRUDER.

PHILIP KEARNEY.

vern Hills, July 1. That was a terrific period. Fair Oaks came very near being an overwhelming Union defeat. McClellan's army was on both sides of the Chickahominy, and the swamps were flooded. Johnston's plan was to destroy the portion of the army on the Fair Oaks side of the river, and he would have done it if it had not been for General Sumner and the recruits he brought toward evening from the opposite side. The loss on either side was about 7,000, and Johnston, then the leading soldier of the Confederacy, was seriously wounded. That wound brought General Lee to the front, a position which he kept to the very last.

NATHANIEL P. BANKS.



BATTLEFIELD OF MALVERN.

EDWIN V. SUMNER.

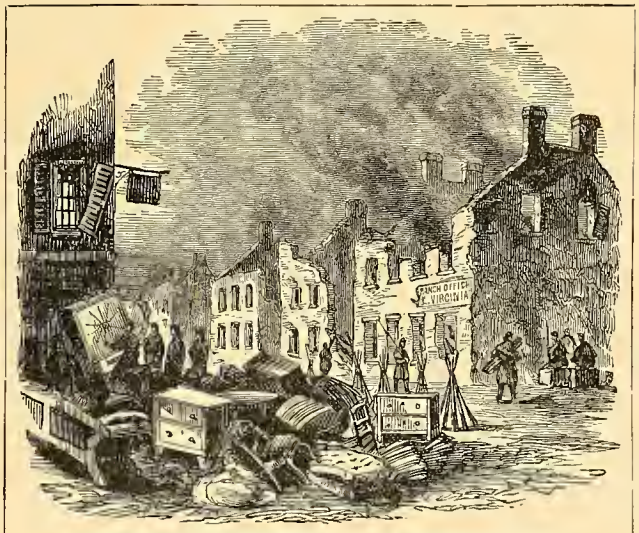
Both armies were so badly crippled that neither felt like taking the initiative. The North greatly censured McClellan for remaining quietly in the malarial swamps of the Chickahominy, and the South regained confidence. This confidence showed itself in the gallant but uneventful dash of Confederate cavalry under General Stuart within the very lines of the main Federal army. The battle of Oak Grove was fought June 25. It was a comparatively small battle, but it was a victory for the Confederates, and McClellen then gave up all aggressive plans. It was no longer "On to Richmond," but the problem was "How not to do it." The next day Jackson and A. P. Hill were directed by Lee to attack the Federal right. All day the battle raged, with indecisive results. The next day at the battle of Gaines' Mills. Lee had hopes of capturing McClellan, and the latter sought to fall back upon the James river in good order and with his supplies. During the 27th Porter held the enemy at bay. The next day Gen. Sumner rendered substantially the same service at the battle of Savage Station. The third day the battle of Frazier's Farm served the same negative purpose, and during that night the army of the Potomac was re-united for the first time since the Chickahominy flowed between it. And now came the climax of the campaign—the battle of Malvern Hill, July 1. That conflict raged until nine o'clock in the evening, when the Confederates abandoned the idea of capturing the Federals. McClellan fell back upon the James, Lee to the entrenchments at Richmond, both sides beaten, with losses on either side variously estimated at from 15,000 to 25,000. The loss by sickness during the heated term was terrible. Of the splendid army of 160,000 which had entered the Peninsula only a small proportion could be mustered as "present and fit for service." The public sentiment at the North was so strongly against General McClellan that he was relieved, practically, and General Pope called from

the West to take his place. The army of the Potomac was re-organized late in July, and early in August Pope assumed the aggressive. "On to Richmond" was once more the cry. The battle of Cedar Mountain was fought August 8, in which Jackson punished Banks unmercifully. Lee now prepared to attempt to capture Pope's whole army, and the latter took alarm. The swollen condition of the Rappahannock baffled both retreat and attack. Pope was gradually forced back toward Washington. The second battle of Bull Run, or Manassas, was fought August 30. At one time it looked as if the Federals were about to win the day, but Fitz John Porter failing to co-operate with the main army, the day was lost and Pope obliged to fall back upon Centerville. By this time Pope was ready to return West, a confessed failure in Virginia, a failure more due, however, to the jealousy of leading subordinate officers than to any lack of soldierly qualities.

FITZ JOHN PORTER

It was now Lee's turn to assume a still more decidedly aggressive attitude. Not content with pushing the enemy to the wall, he moved into Maryland, intending to strike Baltimore and Washington. Several minor battles were fought, and September 17 came the great battle of Antietam. The Confederates under Lee numbered 60,000; the Federals, under McClellan, who was given one more opportunity to fail, numbered 90,000. Three days before, Harper's Ferry had fallen into the hands of the Confederates and the battles of South Mountain (in which the gallant Reno fell), and of Crapton's Gap were fought. But both armies were eager for a decisive victory. "Fighting Joe" Hooker began the firing at daybreak, when Stonewall Jackson swept his corps from off the field, Hooker himself being wounded. All day the firing was kept up. Both sides claimed a victory. It was a substantial triumph for the Federals, for Lee abandoned for a time his aggressive policy and retired up the Shenandoah valley to Winchester.

AMBROSE E. BURNSIDE.



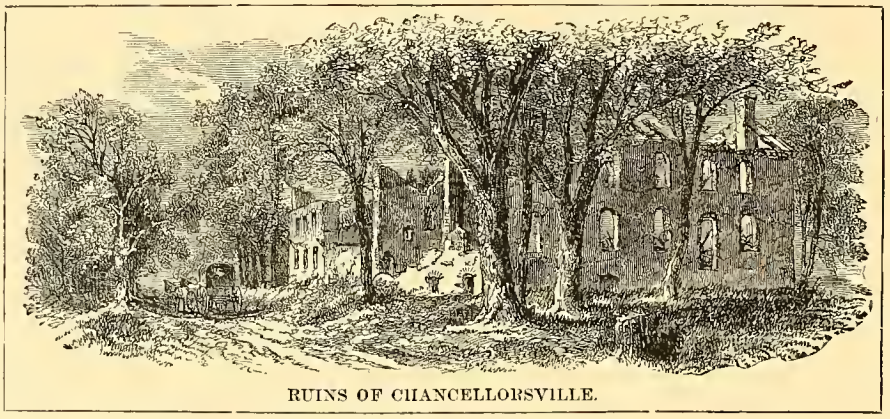
SCENE IN FREDERICKSBURG, DECEMBER 13, 1862.

One more great battle was fought in 1862. It was before the heights of Fredericksburg, Virginia. Burnside, who had now been promoted to the command of the army of the Potomac, attempted the capture of that stronghold. He sacrificed about 15,000 men in the unavailing assault. He took command November 5, and the battle of Fredericksburg was fought December 13. It was a fearful, fruitless and unnecessary slaughter.

In the Southwest the Federals held every stronghold except Vicksburg and Port Hudson, but those were important exceptions. While we have been following the fortunes of the army of the Potomac several important events were occurring in the Mississip-

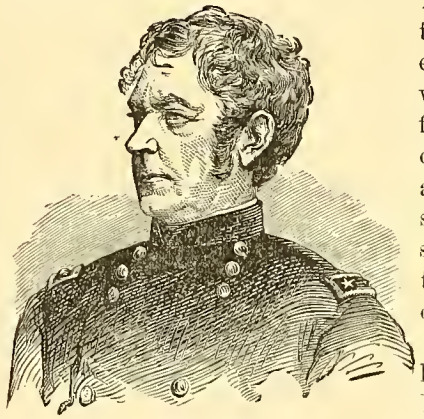
pi Valley. Bragg invaded Kentucky in the hope of adding that state to the Confederacy, and making Tennessee solid for the same cause. He had an army of 60,000. Buell was in command of the opposing Federal forces, having an army of 100,000. Bragg did not succeed in establishing Confederate rule in that region, but he did manage to capture and carry off vast stores of provisions which were greatly needed by the South.

General Grant began in 1862 his movement upon Vicksburg, but he accomplished nothing. He found himself checkmated. His supplies at Holly Springs were captured by the enemy. Corinth, Iuka and Murfreesboro were claimed as Federal victories in the West, but Bragg had much whereof to boast and the South a happier New Year than the North.



RUINS OF CHANCELLORSVILLE.

The year 1862 saw the peace party at the North called Copperheads at its strongest. Many doubtful Congressional districts were carried by them, and some states, notably New York. The discontent was general. Some wanted more fighting, and others less, and no one seemed to be satisfied with the conduct of the war.

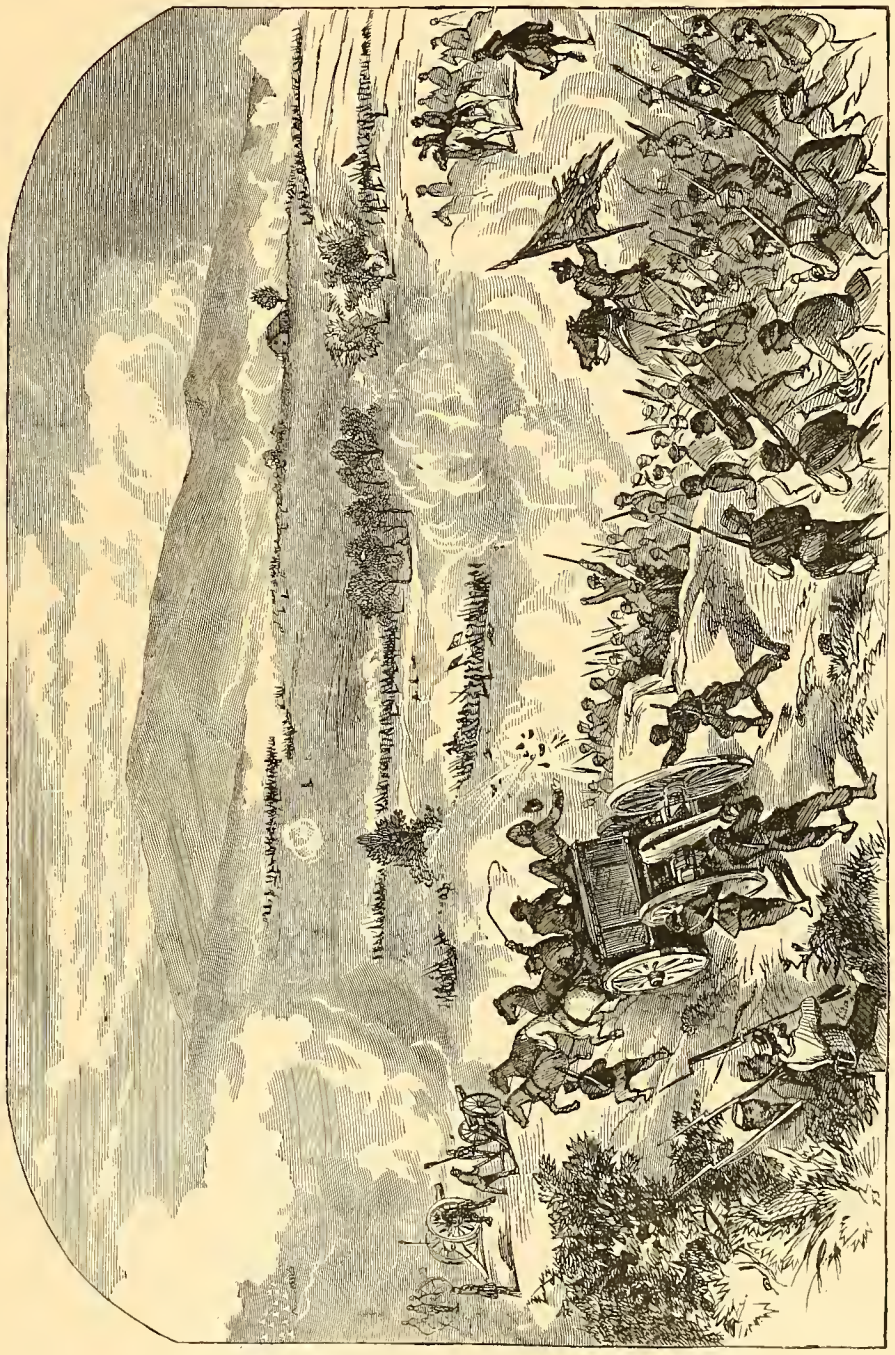


JOSEPH HOOKER.

The proclamation of Emancipation, the most notable American document since the Constitution, was President Lincoln's New Year's greeting. It was issued September 22, 1862, to take effect the first day of January following. That declaration of freedom was confined in its immediate operation to territory not then within the actual jurisdiction of the United States, while careful not to disturb the institution of slavery within the Federal lines. But everybody understood that henceforth the real policy of the government would be liberty to all. From that time on, both sides were more determined than ever before to win the day, feeling the gravity of the stake involved.

The first day of the year 1863 was a day of victory for the Confederates. They captured the important city of Galveston, the key to communication by water with Texas. The next day the Federals gained a victory at Murfreesboro, and a few days later they captured Arkansas Post. But these were not matters of very much importance. On both sides the Potomac was the center of attraction. Burnside asked to be relieved, and was succeeded by "Fighting Joe Hooker," of whom much was expected. He crossed the Rappahannock and fought Lee at Chancellorsville early in May. The result was a victory for the Confederates. The Union loss was over 11,000. Hooker recrossed the river.

About a month later, Lee took his splendid army of 100,000 men northward into Maryland and Pennsylvania, boldly assuming the aggressive. Now for the first time the war was actually transferred in part to the North. On the 28th of June Hooker was superseded by General Geo. G. Meade, of Pennsylvania. Presently the battle of Gettysburg was fought. That was probably the supreme battle of the war. Gettysburg is just over the Maryland line in Pennsylvania. The battle began July 1, and did not close until the third day. The decisive moment was when, in the afternoon of the third day, Lee opened on Hancock's position with one hundred and



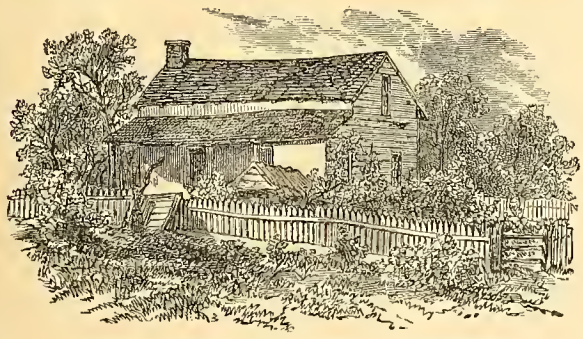
BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.

fifteen guns. The shock did not break the line. It is estimated that about fifty thousand men were lost in that desperate encounter. Lee was obliged to abandon the offensive and retire to the Potomac. The field of Gettysburg is now a national cemetery. It is estimated by Derry that in the Pennsylvania campaign the Southern loss was about 18,000 killed and wounded and 10,000 prisoners. He places the Northern losses at about the same approximate figures.

GEORGE G. MEADE.

Among those who fell at Gettysburg was General John F. Reynolds, of Pennsylvania. A rifle-ball struck him during the first day of the battle, killing him instantly, while in active command of the First Corps. He was a very popular, brave and efficient officer. General Sickles, of New York, it may be added, lost a leg at Gettysburg.

While Lee and Meade were mowing down each other's soldiers in winrows at Gettysburg, General



GENERAL MEADE'S HEADQUARTERS AT GETTYSBURG.

Grant was persistently pushing his way into Vicksburg. The siege began May 19 and ended almost simultaneously with the retreat of Lee. The two events formed one piece of intelligence. General Pemberton was in command of the beleaguered force. On the 3d of July he proposed to surrender, and the next day the surrender was made—31,600 men, 172 cannon, and no less than 15 generals. Four days later Port Hudson surrendered to Banks, and the Mississippi was restored to the Union. The summer of Federal prosperity was undisturbed by any serious counter-disasters. The desperate Morgan dashed into Ohio and Indiana with four thousand Confederate cavalry, but no substantial advantage was gained. On the contrary, the state militia of Ohio proved an overmatch for the raiders.

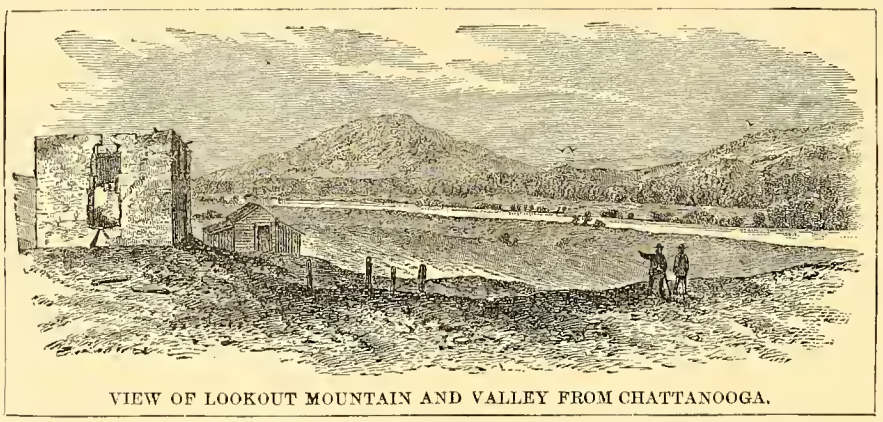
JOHN F. REYNOLDS.

In the fall there was important fighting farther south, in the mountainous region of northern Georgia and southern Tennessee. Upon the banks of the Tennessee stood the little town of Chattanooga, almost at the very foot of Lookout Mountain and near Missionary Ridge. These are names conspicuous in the military annals of the country. In the summer General Rosecrans had won important victories in Tennessee, but in September he was defeated with great loss at Chickamauga River. He was hemmed in and his forces nearly starved out by Bragg. General Thomas grandly came to his rescue and saved his army from overwhelming disaster, from irretrievable ruin. General Grant was sent to supersede him, and given ample resources. His first care was to relieve the wants of the army. General Thomas, who had prevented the defeat of Chickamauga from being a rout, was in command of the Army of the Cumberland. General Hooker came

DANIEL E. SICKLES.

down from Virginia with 23,000 men, and Sherman was at the head of four divisions of the Army of the Tennessee. In a month from the time Grant arrived every preparation had been made for a general engagement. November 24. Hooker charged up Lookout Mountain, "above the clouds," and won a brilliant victory. The next day the great battle of Chattanooga was fought and won, mainly by General Thomas and the gallant Army of the Cumberland. Burnside had rendered effective service by drawing Longstreet away from re-inforcing Bragg. He could not meet him on the open field, but he could prevent him putting his army where it would do the most good for the Confederate cause. When Bragg was compelled to break camp and flee northward, Burnside, then at Knoxville, was re-inforced and Longstreet marched away.

WILLIAM S. ROSECRANS.



VIEW OF LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN AND VALLEY FROM CHATTANOOGA.

The fighting of the year 1863 was now at an end. It only remains to speak of two features of the year, the riot in New York and Andersonville. The government felt compelled to draft for more soldiers during that summer. Nearly everywhere the people submitted graciously; but the "baser sort" in New York City rebelled and raised a most disgraceful riot. The mob wreaked its vengeance on all colored persons found, and even destroyed an asylum for colored orphans. The riot began July 13 and raged three days. It is believed that a thousand persons were killed or wounded. The military were obliged to interpose and put it down.

WILLIAM T. SHERMAN.

The Confederate prison pen at Andersonville, Georgia, dates from November 27, 1863. The whole number of prisoners registered there was 49,485. The full number of deaths recorded were 12,462. The superintendent, one Henry Wirz, was tried, convicted and hanged, after the war, for murderous cruelty.

During the months of January and February no event of importance transpired. On the fourth of March, 1864, Grant was made Lieutenant-General, and placed in command of all the forces of the United States. Then for the first time the army was so unified that it could be handled to the best advantage. Grant was given unlimited scope, and leaving Sherman, Thomas and others of less note in the West, took command in person of the army of the Potomac. He placed General Sheridan, hitherto in obscurity, at the head of the cavalry service, and sent him to scour the Shenandoah Valley. He rendered brilliant service, notably in winning the battle of Winchester, immortalized by T. Buchanan Read's poem, "Sheridan's Ride."

The massacre at Fort Pillow occurred April 13. That was the most cruel episode of the war. There were a great many colored troops at the fort and the

BATTLE OF LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN.

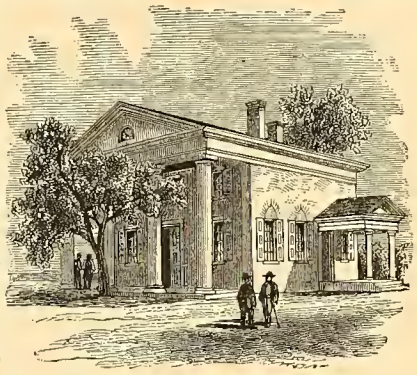
object seems to have been to intimidate the blacks and deter them from enlisting. Generals Forrest and Chalmers share the dishonor of that massacre.

The battle of the Wilderness was fought May 5 and 6. It was a part of Grant's comprehensive plan for crushing the enemy. He evidently thought that the time had come to put an end to the war by one great battle before Richmond. In this he was mistaken. Sherman was ordered to advance on Atlanta the same day that Grant crossed the Rapid Anna to engage Lee. For two days the battle raged and the slaughter was terrible. Grant lost 20,000 men; Lee 10,000. Neither gained any advantage.

PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

But Grant was not disheartened or shaken in his purpose. With dogged perseverance he followed up that battle with another, the battle of Spottsylvania Court House, fought May 10, 11 and 12. In that great battle fell General John Sedgwick of New York, commander of the Sixth Corps. On the 11th inst. General Grant sent to the War Department the famous dispatch, "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." In those words were revealed the character of the man and the secret of his power. "All summer" stretched into and through the next winter, and it was not "on this line" that final victory was won. He kept pushing things, at Cold Harbor, Petersburg, and elsewhere. His losses were enormous and constant. Before July, Grant had lost, it is estimated, 80,000, and Lee half that number.

The great success of the season was Sherman's campaign in Georgia. He captured Atlanta September 1. It was in this battle that General M'Pherson fell wounded mortally. Including the several engagements which culminated in the siege of Atlanta, Sherman lost 30,000 men; the Confederates under Hood and J. E. Johnston, 40,000. He next organized and executed his famous March to the Sea, which was intended to cut off the supplies and sever the railway connections of the Confederacy. The plan was successfully carried out. The march from Atlanta to Savannah was practically unimpeded.



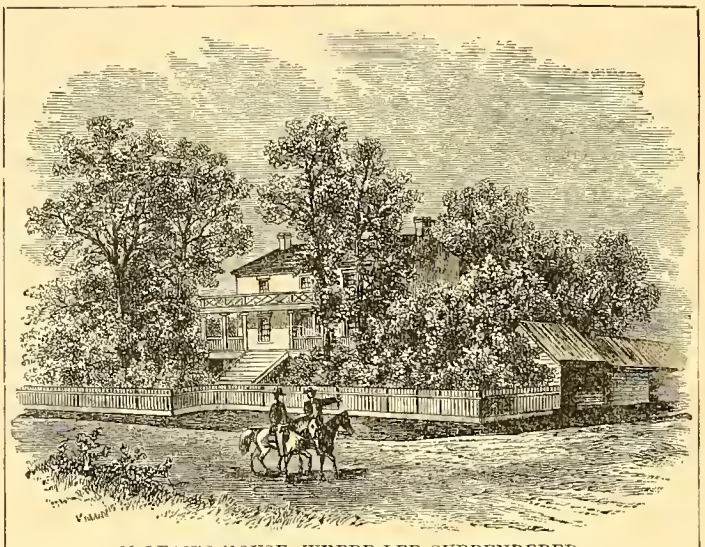
Spottsylvania Court House.

FROM ATLANTA TO THE SEA.

A presidential election occurred at the North during the year 1864. On the Republican side President Lincoln was the candidate, with Andrew Johnson on the ticket as Vice-President. The latter was put forward as a representative of Southern Unionists. On the Democratic side the candidates were General McClellan and Geo. H. Pendleton of Ohio. At the time McClellan was nominated the Union cause was under a thick cloud. The fall of Atlanta came just after that. The platform on which the Democratic candidates were placed pledged them to secure peace at almost any cost. Of course the

states which had seceded and belonged to the Confederacy could not vote, and Mr. Lincoln received an overwhelming majority of the votes cast.

Sherman's March to the Sea began November 15, and on the morning of the 21st of December he entered Savannah. It was during that period that General Thomas outgeneraled Hood completely in Tennessee, and almost crushed his army. Hood assumed the offensive at Franklin November 30, and was repulsed. He planned another assault on Thomas at Nashville, but before he could put it into execution he had been attacked (December 15) and in a battle which raged two days, so crippled that he had to flee to the mountains of Alabama. That virtually ended the war in the interior.



McLEAN'S HOUSE, WHERE LEE SURRENDERED.

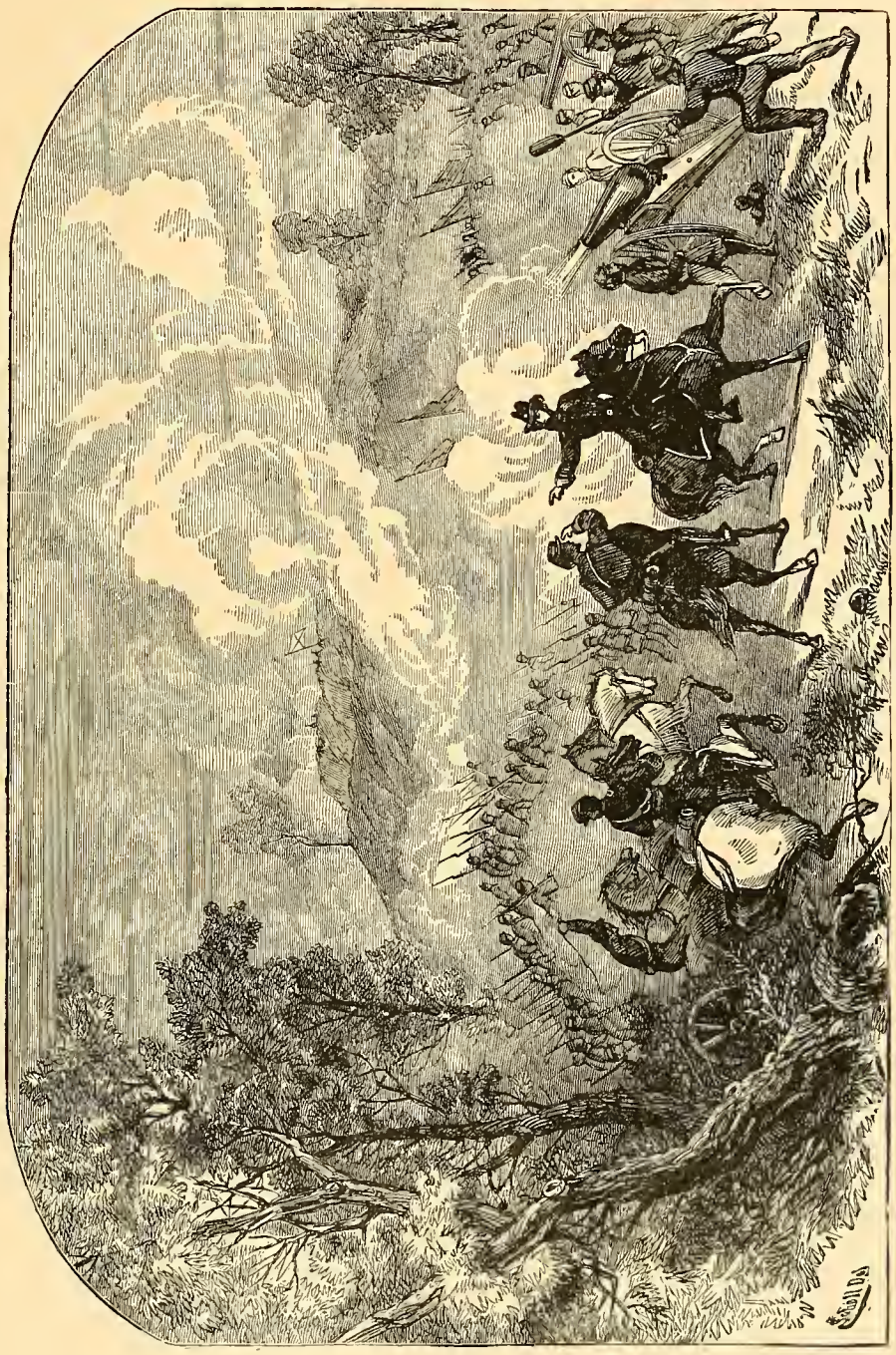
The war was not projected far into 1865. It was obvious that Richmond could not hold out long. The only question was whether to surrender or take a change of base. The latter was prevented by the cutting of Lee's railway communication by Sheridan's cavalry, and the gradual closing in upon the Southern army of the Federal forces. Causes not known at the North, and disclosed in the next chapter, conspired to render resistance impossible.

GEORGE H. THOMAS.

Grant carried Petersburg by assault, and there being no other alternative, Lee surrendered April 9, 1865, at Appomattox Court House. The war was over; the occupancy of Richmond had already occurred. Davis and his cabinet had left the capital a week before. Johnston surrendered the Confederate forces in North Carolina to Sherman, who had moved northward from Savannah, April 18. General Taylor, commanding in Alabama, surrendered to General Terry May 4, and Kirby Smith in Mississippi the 26th. The total number of Confederates who surrendered was about 150,000.

The most tragic event of the war was yet to come, the one which caused the profoundest grief. That was the assassination of President Lincoln. He was shot by J. Wilkes Booth while attending a theatrical entertainment given at Ford's theater, Washington, on the evening of April 14. Before morning the wound had proved fatal. Secretary Seward narrowly escaped being killed by a conspirator. The shock was terrible and the loss incomparable. A great statesman, one who could have harmonized the nation, and restored the reign of law at the South satisfactorily to both sections, gave place to a politician singularly unsuited to the great task in hand. The passions of the war had not had time to cool when that assassination occurred, but it was evident that the South sincerely deprecated the great crime. At first the impression prevailed that the assassin was the agent of Jefferson Davis and other Confederates, but there was no good ground for the suspicion, and it soon faded from the public mind.

Nothing in all the history of the Republic was more creditable than the good behavior of the soldiers after disbandment. More than a million men, North and South, were at once released from military duty and remanded to the walks of civil life. Many of them had long been accustomed to camp



BATTLE OF SPOTTSYLVANIA COURT HOUSE.

and field, but they took up the duties of peace in a quiet, orderly manner, resolved into the general mass of the population without any of the horrors usually experienced in such cases in other lands. The immense increase in the productive power of the nation was absolutely phenomenal.

HENRY W. BELLOWS, D.D.
Founder U. S. Sanitary Commission.

The records of the army medical department give the number treated as 5,825,000 including field and hospital both. Of these the fatal cases were 166,623. The wounded were 273,175; deaths among them, 33,777. Perhaps the most creditable feature of the entire period of conflict was the provision made during the war for the comfort of the sick and wounded. The Sanitary Commission and the Christian Commission, distinct but kindred organizations, raised many millions of dollars which were expended in ameliorating the condition of the sick and wounded soldiers.

VINCENT COLYER.
Chairman U. S. Christian Commission.

The Sanitary Commission disbursed $5,000,000 and supplies valued at about three times that amount, and the Christian Commission is believed to have expended not less than $6,000,000 in the same way, the only difference being that the latter Commission looked after the religious and literary wants of the soldiers as well as their physical requirements.

When the war began, the navy of the United States numbered less than 8,000 men, and at the close it numbered over 50,000. The idea of blockading the South Atlantic coast was ridiculed by the British, and it certainly was the most memorable blockade of history.

During the war there were twenty naval engagements, counting those sieges and assaults in which land forces took the chief part, but required for success naval co-operation.

ADMIRAL FARRAGUT.

The independent naval battle was the successful attempt of the Confederate ram *Merrimac* to sink the Federal frigates *Cumberland* and *Congress* in Hampton Roads. That occurred March 8, 1862. It caused great consternation at the North and rejoicing at the South. The very next day, as we have seen, the Federal gunboat *Monitor* engaged the *Merrimac* and disabled her. In January of the following year the Confederate privateer, the *Alabama*, sunk the United States steamer *Hatteras*. June 19, 1865, the *Kearsage* sunk the *Alabama* off Cherbourg, France. It may be added that the most brilliant naval operation was the capture of Mobile by a fleet under Admiral Farragut, on August 5th, 1864, and the most important the capture of Fort Fisher, January 15, 1865, by the combined land forces under General Terry and naval forces under Commodore Porter. Confederate privateers captured no less than two hundred and eighty-five Federal vessels, and the number of blockade-runners and privateers

COMMODORE PORTER.

captured by the Federal navy during the entire war was no less than thirteen hundred and fifty.

Before leaving the battlefields and following the period of conflict in its political phases, it may be well to add a few biographical sketches.

General Robert Anderson, the first officer on the Union side to attract general attention, was born in Kentucky in 1805, and died in France in 1871. Hardly had he become prominent by virtue of the attack on Sumter, before he sank out of sight, owing to physical inability to take the field.

General B. F. Butler was an eminent lawyer and extreme Democrat when the war began. He promptly laid aside his profession and his prejudices and went to the front. But his strictly military operations were inglorious. It was as a radical Republican Congressman during the period of Reconstruction that he rendered the main service of his life. Of late years he has been devoted to his profession, being out of sympathy with either political party. He has been a candidate for governor of Massachusetts several times.

General H. W. Halleck was at one time the supreme officer of the army, virtually commander-in chief. He was a native of New York. He was born in 1815, and died in 1872. His opportunities were good and his prospects flattering for being the greatest hero of the war, but he was a failure as a practical soldier on a truly national scale.

"Fighting Joe Hooker" was born at Hadley, Mass., in 1815. He was a gallant soldier and rendered truly great service in several important battles. He was not quite equal to the demands of the first rank, but as a corps commander he was brilliant. Lookout Mountain and the battle above the clouds will always be associated with his name. He died in 1872 after a long period of suffering.

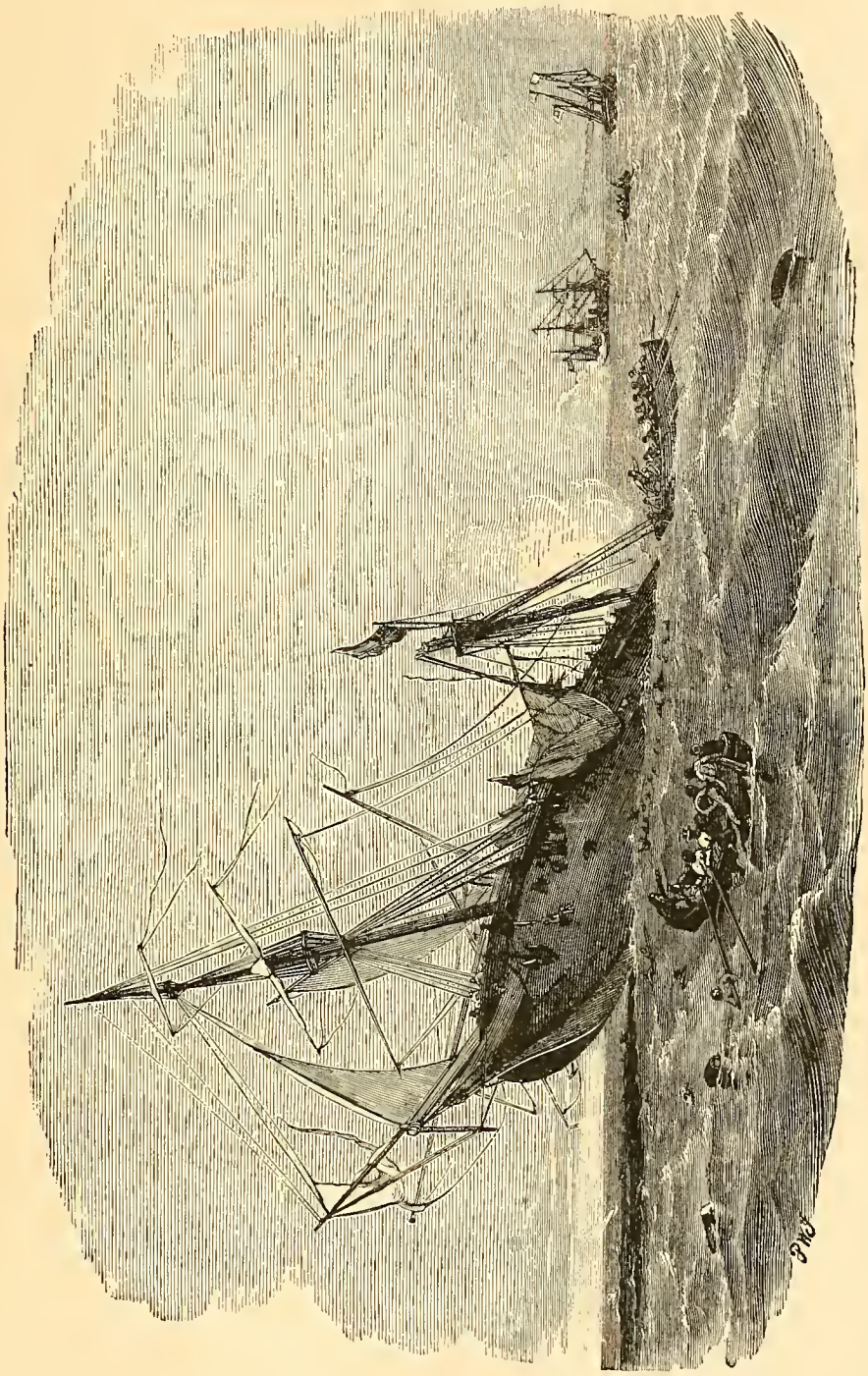
General George B. Meade first attracted conspicuous attention at Gettysburg. He superseded Hooker in time to be the hero of that memorable battle. He held important commands and acquitted himself creditably at South Mountain, Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville and elsewhere. General Meade was a native of Cadiz, Spain, where he was born in 1815, but he was a Pennsylvanian, and died in Philadelphia in 1872.

General Pope was born at Kaskaskia, Illinois, in 1823. His career in the Western army was so very successful that he was transferred to the Potomac to succeed McClellan, where, as we have seen, he was very unfortunate. General Pope is still in the service. General W. S. Rosecrans, who was early conspicuous in the Southwest, was born in Ohio in 1819. He retired from the army in 1866. In 1868 President Johnson appointed him Minister to Mexico. He shortly afterwards retired to private life in California. In 1880 he was elected to Congress as a Democrat. He was a warm supporter in that political campaign of General W. S. Hancock, as against his former chief of staff, General Garfield. General Hancock was born in Pennsylvania in 1824. His entire life, it might be said, has been spent in the army. From the time he entered West Point as a cadet until now he has been devoted to the military service. His presidential candidacy was thrust upon him, and that mainly for the conservatism of his course as military commander at New Orleans during the period of reconstruction. Gettysburg was his most important battle.

GENERAL HANCOCK.

General Geo. H. Thomas, like General Lee, was a native of Virginia, but to him national loyalty was paramount to state fealty. Born in 1816, he had seen service in the Seminole and Mexican wars, and been a professor at West Point. In the valley of the Shenandoah, in Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee and Georgia he showed himself to be a grand genius for war. Had he been pushed forward by influential friends, he might have proved the supreme hero of the war; but his state was in hostility to the cause in which he was engaged, and that was a serious hindrance to his promotion. He died a major-general in the regular army, at San Francisco, in 1870.

General W. T. Sherman was born in Lancaster, Ohio, in 1820. He is a brother of John Sherman. We have already spoken of his more notable ex-



SINKING OF THE ALABAMA BY THE KEARSAGE.

ploits. When General Grant was elected to the presidency General Sherman succeeded him at the head of the army, the position which he still maintains. Next to him, holding since 1869 the rank of lieutenant-general, is Philip H. Sheridan. Grant, Sherman and Sheridan are the names most illustrious in connection with the Union cause, and all three were born in Ohio, Grant in 1822, Sherman in 1820 and Sheridan in 1831. Sheridan was an obscure cavalry officer until Grant was placed in command of all the armies, when he was made chief of cavalry, and amply justified the confidence reposed in him. Especial mention should also be made of General McPherson who was killed before Atlanta in 1864. He too was a native of Ohio, born in 1828. His death was a great loss to the army. He had proved himself a great soldier in many a hard-fought battle, from Corinth to Kenesaw and Atlanta. General O. O. Howard, now at the head of the Military Academy at West Point, is a native of Maine. He was equally eminent as a soldier and a Christian. Pious and brave, he bore a prominent part in the battle of Fair Oaks where he lost an arm, also in the battles of Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Chattanooga and Atlanta. He was at the head of the Freedman's Bureau, after the war.

The administration of Andrew Johnson belongs to the period of conflict. It was during his term of office, which extended from April 15, 1865, to March 4, 1869, that the work of restoring the Union was all virtually performed, and it may be said that when that task had been accomplished the present period of the United States began.

In a political way very little was done at the North after the war had closed until December, 1865, when Congress convened. The states which had formed the Confederacy for the most part repealed their several ordinances of secession, repudiated their state war debts and formally ratified the abolition of slavery. Mississippi led the way, August 22. Alabama followed her example September 10; South Carolina, September 13; North Carolina, October 2; Florida and Georgia, October 25. The position of Virginia was anomalous. As early as 1863 a state government, loyal to the Union, was formed in counties under Federal control, and President Johnson recognized that government as valid for the whole state, and prohibited the meeting of the more general legislature of the state, called for the purpose of repealing the ordinance of secession and abolishing slavery. As early as February, 1864, the legislature which Mr. Johnson recognized as valid for the whole state of Virginia had abolished slavery.

When Congress convened, the Southern states presented themselves for admission, but their representatives were denied admission, with the exception of Tennessee, which was re-admitted during 1866. The position of the Republican party was that the states which had gone out of the Union should remain out until the necessary safeguards against secession in the future should have been provided. Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania was the virtual leader of the party at that time. He was a member of the House of Representatives. President Johnson insisted that the seceded states should be restored as soon as they had repealed their ordinances of secession and duly elected representatives to Congress. In this position he was sustained by a few Republicans and all the Democrats. But he was utterly powerless. The Republican majority was so large that any party measure could be passed over his veto by a two-thirds majority. Instead of accepting the situation and yielding his personal views to the inevitable will of the majority, he persisted throughout his entire term of office in keeping up the conflict. In the meanwhile the states which had seceded were under provisional government and their restoration to prosperity seriously impeded.

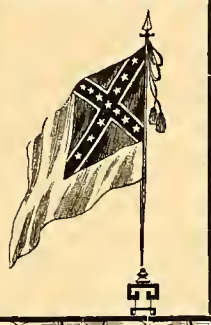
The Thirteenth Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery, was the first important step toward reconstruction. That was officially declared adopted December 18, 1865. An elaborate Reconstruction Act became a law March 2, 1867, and the same day Congress passed over the President's veto the Tenure-of-Office bill, which greatly restricted the removing power of the Executive. The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which was an elaborate embodiment of the principles of the Republican party on reconstruction, became a part of the organic law of the Republic, July 28, 1868. It was not until March 30, 1870, that the Fifteenth Amendment, virtually conferring the right of suffrage upon the negro, was adopted.

The longer the conflict between Congress and the President was continued, the more radical and bold did the dominant party become. During all this period of post-war contest, the Southern States were

in a condition of suspended political animation. By July, 1870, the restoration of all the states had been effected, and the period of conflict may be said to have come to a close.

In the meanwhile had occurred the impeachment, trial and acquittal of Andrew Johnson, and the election of his successor, General Grant. That impeachment was the culmination of the feud between the legislative and executive departments of the general government. It requires a two-thirds majority of the Senate, sitting as a high court of impeachment, to convict. One more vote against him, and President Johnson would have been deposed. That great state trial occurred in the spring of 1868. Just after its termination the National Republican Convention met at Chicago and nominated General Grant for President by acclamation, and Schuyler Colfax for Vice-President. Their opponents were Horatio Seymour, of New York, who as Governor of that state had opposed the military draft, and General Francis P. Blair. All the states took part in the election except Virginia, Georgia, Mississippi and Texas, which had not been reconstructed at that time. Grant and Colfax received 214 electoral votes, and Seymour and Blair 71. The popular majority of the Republican party was nearly 3,000,000. That election settled forever the validity of the amendments to the Constitution adopted subsequent to the war, including universal suffrage.

Early in 1868 there was organized at the South a secret order known as the Ku-Klux-Klan, with General Forrest at its head. Its object was to thwart by intimidation the enfranchisement of the colored people and prevent the complete triumph at the South of the Northern cause, or, as the members would express it, the design was to "redeem the South." That was the last flicker of the flames which had reddened the whole horizon of the nation. Many of the members were brought to trial, convicted and sentenced to the penitentiary for their acts of violence. After the excitement had died away and the punishment was supposed to have had its due effect in breaking up the organization, President Grant pardoned the prisoners, and now the last ember of the war, kindled in 1854, seems to be dead. Before passing on, however, to the present United States it will be well to devote a chapter to the distinctively Southern features of the period which has been under consideration in this chapter.



RISE AND FALL OF THE CONFEDERACY.

CHAPTER LXXXII.

THE PURPOSE OF THE CHAPTER—CAUSES OF THE CONFEDERACY—THE ELECTION OF LINCOLN—THE DOCTRINE OF STATE SOVEREIGNTY—THE RIGHT OF REVOLUTION—ORDINANCES OF SECESSION—AT MONTGOMERY—THE CONFEDERATE CONSTITUTION—VIRGINIA AND THE PEACE CONVENTION—SUMTER AND THE FIRST CALL FOR TROOPS—GENERAL LEE—SEMMES AND THE "ALABAMA"—POPULATION, BLACK AND WHITE, OF THE SOUTH—RESULTS AT THE CLOSE OF FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD YEARS OF THE WAR—DERRY ON THE TWO ARMIES—STEPHENS ON FORT FISHER—ANOTHER COMPARISON OF THE TWO ARMIES—CAUSES OF THE FAILURE OF THE CONFEDERACY—TESTIMONY OF DAVIS—DAVIS ON SOUTHERN FINANCE—EXHAUSTION OF THE SOUTH—TESTIMONY OF THE CONFEDERATE COMMISSARY GENERAL—FALSE HOPE—THE CAUSE LOST—PENALTIES—PERSONS AND STATES—THE END OF THE WAR—BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

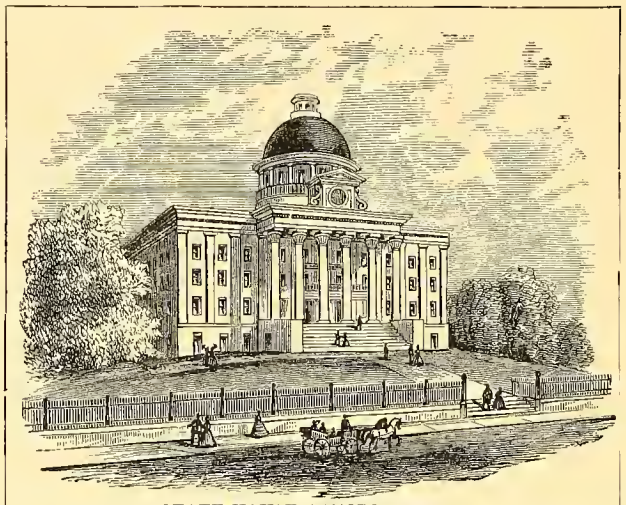
IT is customary in histories of the United States, whether brief or long, to consider the Confederate States only so far as they relate to the great conflict which engaged our attention in the chapter immediately preceding this one. It is difficult to form a distinct conception of the subject from that merely side view of it. The purpose of the chapter now in hand is to set forth the actual apart from the argumentative in the rise and fall of that stupendous political organization which, without gaining recognition as an independent government from any of the nations, performed all the functions of a confederate republic for about four years, and must ever stand in history as one of the more memorable of national episodes.

It is no part of the present purpose to either discuss principles, analyze motives, or even to sift evidence. The first half of the sixth decade of this century is too near the present to be treated dispassionately by the historians of the country. In this connection those whose sympathies were with the Southern cause will be allowed, as it were, to tell their own story without interruption or contradiction, only with such abbreviation as the general scope of this volume may require.

Jefferson Davis in his elaborate work, "The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government," begins his first chapter with a discussion of "the institution of negro servitude." In his famous first speech in defense of the Confederacy, Alexander H. Stephens declared slavery to be the corner-stone of the new government. We thus have the two highest officers under that goverment, the President and Vice-President, uniting on this point, disagreeing as they did and do on many others. Beyond a doubt secession was the culmination of the struggle over slavery and the election of Mr. Lincoln upon a platform pledging him to oppose the further extension of the institution was the immediate occasion of it. The new President took every opportunity to allay apprehensions as to his policy, but the spirit which would not brook the Tariff Act of the

Jacksonian period became absolutely irrepressible in the presence of a great political victory, which was the first in the history of the Union won by a party avowedly hostile to slavery, and tolerant of it only so far as compelled to be by the constitution.

Still another cause, the one which was in point of fact the corner-stone of the movement, was the doctrine of state sovereignty. That issue was older than the constitution and entirely independent of slavery in its origin, if not in its development. "Governments," says the Declaration of Independence, "derive their just powers from the consent of the governed," but the government of the United States derived its powers from the consent of the states which in the delegation of authority reserved all rights not specifically vested in the general government. Even before its adoption so true a patriot as Patrick Henry denounced the constitution as an infringement upon the rights of the states. The issue thus raised was not sectional. And in later years there were not wanting those at the North who denounced the Union and the Constitution. The systematic inculcation of the doctrine that states were sovereign and the Union a partnership liable to be changed by the withdrawal of any partner, may be fairly attributed to John C. Calhoun. But as early as 1798 a convention was held in Kentucky which adopted the same theory of the Union. That manifesto was the formal expression of the fundamental political principle of the Confederate States.



STATE HOUSE, MONTGOMERY.

The right of secession was also defended upon the broad ground that when nearly ten millions of people, occupying a correspondingly large area, unite in a political movement, however revolutionary, they have a right to make the proposed change. In other words, the cause was based on the doctrine of popular sovereignty, or the right of revolution in distinction from constitutional limitations. This position was maintained in the debates of Congress and in the various discussions of the day.

Such were the doctrines of the Southern cause. The first act, however, of secession was the passage by the legislature of South Carolina of the ordinance of separation, December 20, 1860. It was passed without a dissenting vote. Five other states followed the same course, but not with the same unanimity, during the month following, namely, Mississippi, January 9, 1861; Florida, the 10th; Alabama, the 11th; Georgia, the 19th, and Louisiana, the 26th. Texas delayed only until the first day of February.

These seven states alone constituted the original Confederacy. They met in a representative and collective body at Montgomery, Alabama, February 4, and organized a new Union, framed a new constitution and proclaimed a new federation, calling it "The Confederate States of America." From that time on, such was the official name of the Confederacy then and thus formed. This constitution was modeled closely after that of the United States.

In the appendix to the first volume of his work, Mr. Davis prints these two documents in parallel columns, italicizing the passages and parts peculiar to the later of the two. The new features of the Confederate constitution worthy of any note are these: First, the favor and guidance of Almighty God were invoked; second, Congress was specifically authorized to grant by law to the principal officer in each of the executive departments a seat upon the floor of either House, with the privilege of discussing any measure appertaining to his department; third, the President might approve a part of an appropriation bill and veto a part; fourth, Congress was forbidden to grant any bounties from the treasury or levy a tariff except for revenue only; fifth, no ap-

propriations could be made for internal improvements; sixth, a bankruptcy law could be passed, but not to apply to any debt contracted prior to its passage; seventh, the expenses of the postal service must not exceed the revenue derived therefrom; eighth, Congress could prohibit the introduction of slaves from any state not a member of the Confederacy; ninth, no law could be passed denying or impairing the right of property in negro slaves; tenth, a tariff could be levied upon exports, but only by a vote of two-thirds of both houses; eleventh, "Congress shall appropriate no money from the treasury, except by a vote of two-thirds of both houses, taken by yeas and nays, unless it be asked and estimated for by some one of the heads of departments, and submitted to Congress; or for the purpose of paying its own expenses and contingencies; or for the payment of claims against the Confederate states, the justice of which shall have been judicially declared by a tribunal for the investigation of claims against the government, which it is hereby the duty of Congress to establish;" twelfth, "all bills appropriating money shall specify in Federal currency the exact amount of each appropriation, and the purposes for which it is made; and Congress shall grant no extra compensation to any public contractor, officer, agent or servant after such contract shall have been made or such service rendered;" thirteenth, "every law, or resolution having the force of law, shall relate to but one subject, and that shall be expressed in the title;" fourteenth, in the improvement of rivers and harbors the states might singly or in concert levy taxes for that purpose, any surplus raised to be covered into the general treasury; fifteenth, the term of office of the President and Vice-President to be six, instead of four years, the President being ineligible to re-election; sixteenth, civil officers, except cabinet officers and the diplomatic corps, removable during their term of office only for cause, the same to be reported to the senate in all cases of removal; seventeenth, the right to carry slaves from one state to another without impairment of property therein fully guaranteed; eighteenth, new states could be admitted by a two-thirds vote of Congress and new territory acquired, but in all cases and everywhere throughout the Confederacy the right of property in slaves should be preserved intact; nineteenth, upon the ratification of the constitution by five states it should be binding, a presidential election should be held and the provisional government at Montgomery should give place to the permanent one chosen in accordance with constitutional requirements.

The constitution took effect February 22, 1862. Jefferson Davis continued as President and Alexander H. Stephens as Vice-President.

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

We must now go back a little. The state of Virginia was reluctant to secede, and made special effort to bring about a reconciliation. A Peace Convention at the instance of that state, in which thirteen Northern and seven Southern states were represented, ex-President Tyler presiding, accomplished nothing. Three commissioners were sent from Montgomery to Washington to treat for an amicable division of the Union and settlement of all claims incident to separation. That was during the presidential term of Mr. Buchanan. He received them as private citizens, refusing to entertain any proposition for disunion. A week after Mr. Lincoln became President the Confederate commissioners tried to open negotiations through the Secretary of State, Mr. Seward. All hope of success in that direction was abandoned when it was known that a squadron of seven ships had been fitted out to reinforce Fort Sumter. It only remained then to abandon the Confederate movement or resort to arms. If there was any hesitation as to which course to pursue, the firing on Sumter, April 12, put an end to it, and its fall the next day produced the wildest enthusiam throughout the South. The call of Mr. Lincoln for 75,000 volunteers, issued two days after the fall of Sumter, was met at Montgomery by a call for volunteers to repel oppression. Two days later, April 17, Virginia held a convention and withdrew from the Union. Arkansas followed May 6, North Carolina May 20, and Tennessee June 8. The other slave-holding states on the border, Maryland

Kentucky, Missouri and Delaware, never formally withdrew from the Union, and were said to have contributed their quota to both armies.

An election for President and Vice-President of the Confederacy was held November 6, 1862, with the result stated. The choice was unanimous. At the same time General Robert E. Lee, who at first hesitated as to which side to espouse, was appointed to take command of the Confederate forces on the coast of Georgia and South Carolina. He was a native of Virginia, born in 1807. He was a colonel in the regular army at the time Virginia seceded. He felt that the state had a higher claim upon him than the United States, and resigned his commission. He was a man of superb physique, high moral character and great ability. He was early second in importance among the Confederate army, and after General Joseph E. Johnston was wounded and succeeded by him at Fair Oaks (May 31, 1862) he was the first. When Lee died, October 12, 1870, he was the most popular man in the South.

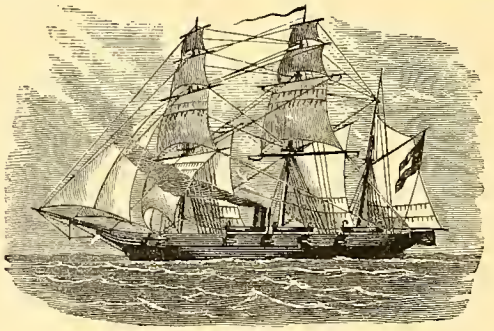
ROBERT E. LEE.

JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON.

The first year of the war was in its net results favorable to the Confederacy, both on land and water. The Confederate privateers crippled Northern commerce very seriously, and captured merchandise upon the high seas to the value of many millions of dollars. In these operations one name stands out conspicuous, Raphael Semmes of Alabama, who began his privateering in command of the *Sumter*, but who became best known in connection with the famous *Alabama* which he commanded, and which was built for privateering by 260 English merchants. The second year of the war was still more favorable to the Confederate cause than the first. There is wide divergence of opinion between Southern and Northern writers as to the number of men on either side and the result of many of the engagements in which no very decided advantage was gained by either army; but there is agreement as to the general fact that the first and second years of the war made exhibits in their balance sheets in favor of the Confederacy.

RAPHAEL SEMMES.

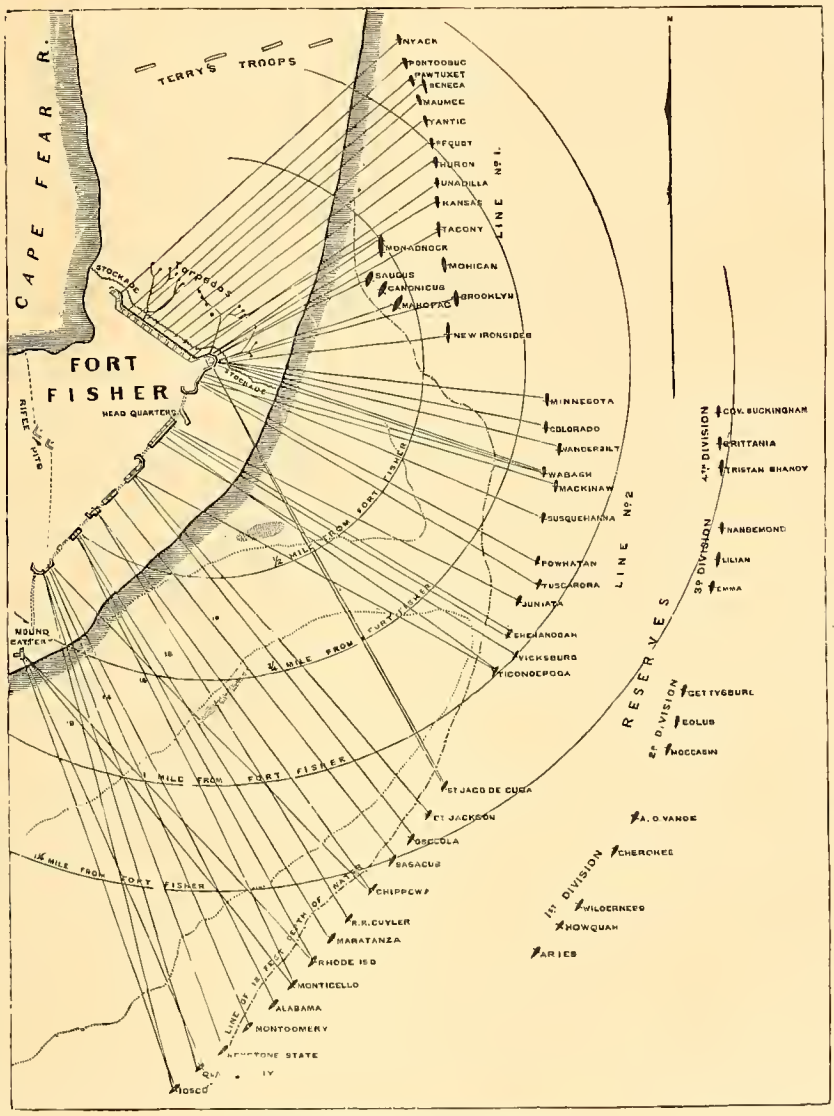
It is stated that there were about 3,000,000 slaves within the limits of the Confederate states when the Proclamation of Emancipation was issued. The white population was about 5,000,000, as against 22,000,000 whites and 1,000,000 blacks within the Union. From the beginning of 1863 the Confederate army dwindled in size and the Union army augmented. It is agreed on all sides that 1863 was a year of great advantage to the Federal army. Notwithstanding some defeats, the United States had control of the Mississippi River and the state of Tennessee, while the aggressive movement of Lee upon Pennsylvania had been repulsed. Derry sets



THE ALABAMA.

the number of the Federal armies at that time at 1,000,000; of the Confederate army at 250,000. The same authority claims that a year later the Federal army was still a million strong while the Confederate forces had been reduced to 150,000.

The capture of Fort Fisher at the entrance of Cape Fear River, North Carolina, by General Terry, January 15, 1865, did not attract very much attention at the North, but speaking of its importance, Alexander H. Stephens says, "the closing of the port of Wilmington [the result of that capture] was the complete shutting out of the Confederate states from all intercourse by sea with foreign countries. The respiratory functions of external trade, so essential to the vitality of all communities, had been performed for the whole Confederacy mainly for nearly three years through the small aperture of the little port, choked to wheezing as it was by a cordon of armed ships drawn around its neck."



BOMBARDMENT OF FORT FISHER.

Another Southern authority, Blackburn and McDonald's history of the United States, places the number of battles fought at 220; the number of the Confederate troops surrendered at the close of the war at 174,223; and the Confederate debt at $2,000,000,000. Derry asserts that when Lee surrendered he had only 8,000 soldiers capable of bearing arms, confronting an army of 180,000. Mr. Stephens furnishes the following facts in regard to the depreciation of the Confederate currency, the gold dollar being the unit of measurement and the time being the first of each year: 1862, $1.20; 1863, $3.00; 1864, $21.00; 1865, $50.00. By the first of April, nine days before the surrender of Lee, $100 in Confederate currency was estimated to be equivalent to $1 in coin.

In discussing the cause of the Confederate failures, Blackburn and Macdonald allege five reasons, first, lack of unanimity at the South; second, number and wealth of the Federals; third, mismanagement of the finances; fourth, retention of inefficient officers; fifth, endeavor to protect too many points at once when the war began. As their history soon

reached eleven editions, the sale almost wholly confined to the South, this verdict may be presumed to accord with that of the court of popular Southern opinion. Jefferson Davis briefly observes that the war showed the right of secession to be impracticable. It is universally conceded that the decision was a finality, and even Mr. Davis, the most persistent and elaborate defender of the right to secede, closes his great work with the hope that there may be written upon the arch of the Union, *Esto Perpetua.*

Jefferson Davis defends the financial policy of the Confederate government as the best possible under the circumstances. The government, he says, entered upon its second year without any floating debt, and the total expenditures were $170,000,000 up to the time that the permanent government came into operation, February 1, 1862. The latest official statement of the public debt of the Confederacy bears date of October 1, 1864. Mr. Davis places the amount at that time of the total debt at $1,126,381,095. Of this amount $541,340,000 consisted of funded debt and the balance unfunded debt, or treasury notes. This statement is exclusive of the foreign debt, which, he adds, amounted to £2,200,000, provided for by about 250,000 bales of cotton collected by the government. To this statement Mr. Davis adds in a foot-note, "These bales were the security for the foreign cotton loan, and were seized by the United States government. Was it not liable to the bondholders?" He also makes the following statement: "The earliest proposals on which this debt was contracted were issued in London and Paris in March, 1863, [as the result of the missions of Mason and Slidell.] The bonds bore interest at seven per cent. per annum in sterling, payable half-yearly. They were exchangeable for cotton on application, at the option of the holder, or redeemable at par in sterling, in twenty years, by half-yearly drawings, commencing March 1, 1864. The special security of these bonds was the engagement of the government to deliver cotton to the holders. Each bond, at option of the holder, was convertible at its nominal amount in cotton at the rate of six-pence sterling for each pound of cotton, say 4,000 pounds of cotton to each bond of £100, or 2,500 francs; and this could be done at any time not later than six months after the ratification of a treaty of peace between the belligerents. An annual sinking fund of five per cent. was provided for, whereby two and a half per cent. of the bonds unredeemed by cotton should be drawn by lot half-yearly, so as to finally extinguish the loan in twenty years from the first drawing. The bonds were issued at ninety per cent., payable in installments. The loan soon stood in the London market at five per cent. premium. The amount asked for was three million pounds. The amount of applications in London and Paris exceeded £15,000,000." Such was the financial system of the Confederacy, as set forth by the highest Southern authority.

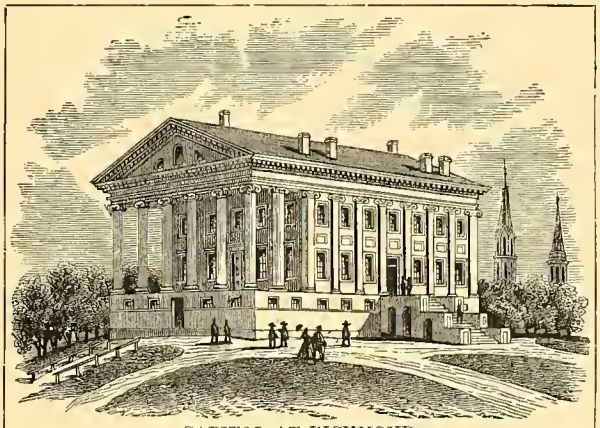
While the resources of the North were such that production was far more rapid than consumption all through the war, and the more the army used of every necessary of life, the more the country seemed to have, the Southern supplies of food had to be kept up by importation. The condition of the Confederacy was stated to the Confederate Congress, December 14, 1864, by the commissary-general of subsistence to be as follows: "First, there was not meat enough in the Southern Confederacy for the armies it had in the field; second, there was not in Virginia meat or bread enough for the armies within her limits; third, the bread supply from other places depended absolutely upon the keeping open of the railroad connections of the South; fourth, the meat supply must be obtained from abroad through a seaport and by a different system from that which prevailed; fifth, the bread could not be had by impressment, but must be paid for in market rates; sixth, the payment must be paid in cash which, so far, had not been furnished, and from present indications could not be, and, if possible, in a better medium than at present circulating; seventh, that the transportation was not adequate, from whatever cause, to meet the demands of the service; eighth, the supply of fresh meat to General Lee's army was precarious, and if the army fell back from Richmond and Petersburg, there was every probability that it would cease altogether."

Such being the condition of the Confederacy, the surrender of Lee, the departure of Davis with the remnants of his government from Richmond, followed as matters of course. The only surprise is that it was delayed so long. The eighth item in the foregoing resume explains the fact that no attempt was made to prolong the conflict by a change of base. Mr. Davis had contemplated resort to that expedient.

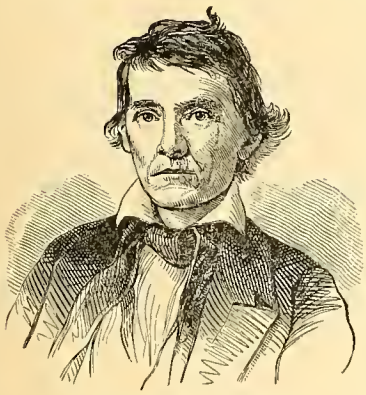
At the very last moment a deceptive gleam of

hope illumined the darkness at Richmond. On the 5th of April Mr. Davis, then at Danville, Richmond being in Federal possession, issued an address which closed with the words, "Let us, then, my countrymen, not despond, but rely upon God, meet the foe with fresh defiance and with unconquered and unconquerable hearts." The very next day commenced the correspondence between Grant and Lee which culminated in the surrender at Appomattox Court House, April 9, in accordance with which each officer and man was allowed to return home, not to be disturbed by the United States authorities so long as he observed his parole and the laws.

Thus the great war closed with no one so much as imprisoned for bearing arms against the victor. President Davis and Vice-President Stephens were arrested. The former was kept in Fortress Monroe some two years, the latter in Fort Warren only a short time. Practically, the participants in the Confederacy were not punished, except in so far as the fortunes of war and the abolition of slavery were calamitous. The great mass of the people were allowed to vote at once, the same as if the relations between the states had always been amicable and those who were disfranchised nearly all regained the right of suffrage in a few years. Mr. Stephens and many others high in authority under the Confederacy, were long ago admitted to Congress as members. The attempt to re-enfranchise Mr. Davis, however, was the occasion of intense feelings of hostility, and he is still deprived of the highest privilege of citizenship. The states which seceded were kept, as we have seen in a previous chapter, in a provisional condition for several years, all of them, except Tennessee, which re-entered the Union the next summer. During that period military governors were in command. And when the states were restored, so many of the white people were under political disability that the colored people and their few political allies, mostly from the North, had control of the offices. That condition of things was a part of the results of the attempt to establish an independent Southern Confederacy, but the war itself was carried to such an extreme of exhaustion that when once over, that was the end of it. The little battle, if such it may be called, of Brazos, Texas, May 13, 1865, in which the Confederates were an overmatch for the Federal troops opposed, was the last shot, as Sumter was the first, of the Confederacy.



CAPITOL AT RICHMOND.



ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS.

It only remains now to supplement this chapter with a little further biographical information.

The first military commander at the South to attract attention was General P. G. T. Beauregard. He was a native of Louisiana, where he was born in 1818. He was educated at West Point and served in the Mexican war. He resigned his commission in the United States army to enter the Confederate service at the beginning of the war. He commanded at the firing upon Sumter, also in the battle of Manassas, or Bull Run. He was less prominent after that, owing in part to poor health. He remained in the service until the war closed.

P. G. T. BEAUREGARD.

When Gen. A. S. Johnston was killed he took the command and was at the head of the army which Halleck drove out of Corinth in 1862. His last service was the command of the division of Georgia and South Carolina. He was among the officers who surrendered to Sherman. After the war he became a civil engineer at the South.

General John C. Breckenridge took a somewhat prominent part in the war. He was a major-general. He was also Secretary of War in the last days of the Confederacy. But his prominence was prior to the war. Born in Kentucky in 1821, he became Vice-President of the United States in 1857. He had previously seen service in the Mexican war. He was the regular Democratic candidate for the presidency in 1860. He died at his home in Kentucky in 1875.

JOHN C. BRECKENRIDGE.

General J. T. Jackson, best known as "Stonewall" Jackson, was one of the most brilliant soldiers of the war. A native of Virginia, and educated at West Point, he received his practical training in Mexico. The war between the states found him a professor in a military school in his own state. He entered the service at the beginning of the war, and was in the field precisely two years, falling at Chancellorsville May 2, 1868. He was shot by a party of his own soldiers, he and his staff being mistaken for the advance-guard of Federal cavalry. He was the idol of the army, and his loss was mourned as a great calamity. He was brilliant and dashing, knowing neither fear nor fatigue. He was withal a very devout Christian.

J. T. (Stonewall) JACKSON.

General James Longstreet, born in South Carolina in 1820, a West Pointer and a soldier in the Mexican war, bore a prominent part in the Confederate army, from Bull Run to Appomattox. He came very near sharing the fate of Jackson, for he was severely wounded by the blundering of his own men in one of the battles of the Wilderness. After the war, Longstreet accepted the political situation and became a Republican. In 1880 he was appointed U. S. minister at the Turkish court.

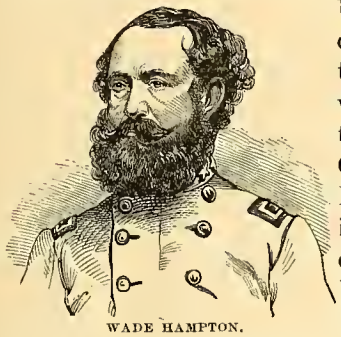
JAMES LONGSTREET.

There were two Johnstons in the war on the Confederate side who rivaled Lee and Jackson in popularity, Albert Sidney and Joseph E. The war found the former in command of the Federal forces at San Francisco. He was a native of Kentucky, born in 1803, a graduate of West Point, and a Mexican veteran. When he resigned to join the Confederacy he was a brigadier-general in the regular army. He was killed in the battle of Shiloh, early in 1862. Jefferson Davis and Alexander H. Stephens unite in pronouncing his death a great calamity to the Southern cause. General J. E. Johnston was a native of Virginia, which state he now represents in Congress. He too was a West Point graduate and Mexican veteran. He was born in 1807. At the battle of Manassas he was the ranking officer, but waived his right to command in favor of Beauregard. He won more

ALBERT SIDNEY JORNSTON.

credit, however, by holding Patterson in check than Beauregard did by winning the victory thus made possible. In the Peninsula campaign he was the commander of the Confederate forces. But Mr. Davis conceived a dislike for him which culminated in his being relieved of his command for several months. The popular pressure for his restoration to active service was so great that he was given another command. When the war closed he was in command of the army in the Carolinas and practically second only to General Lee. To what has already been said of the latter need only be added that the last years of his life were spent in the presidency of Washington College, Virginia. One of the latest utterances of Lee were these words addressed to the widow of a Confederate soldier, "Madame, do not train up your children in hostility to the government of the United States."

Wade Hampton, now the most popular man in South Carolina and a member of the Senate of the United States, held a command in the battle of Bull Run. He was wounded during that battle, also at Gettysburg and Seven Pines. He remained in the service to the end of the war. He has been more prominent as a Democratic politician than he was as a soldier. His grandfather, the first Wade Hampton, served under Sumter and Marion in the Revolutionary War. He was a man of immense wealth, owning at one time 3,000 slaves and a correspondingly large amount of cotton lands.



WADE HAMPTON.

General Hardee, author of *Hardee's Tactics*, a Georgian, was commandant at West Point when his state seceded. He resigned his commission and cast his fortunes with the Confederacy. He rose to the rank of lieutenant-general, but in the field did not prove specially brilliant. He was brave and scientific, but not fertile in invention.

There were two Hills of some prominence, A. P. and D. H. The former received the surrender of Harper's Ferry, and then rendered his side most timely aid at Antietam. He fell just as Richmond was surrendered. D. H. Hill was born in South Carolina in 1822, was educated at West Point, and rendered good service in the Mexican war. For something over ten years thereafter he was an educator and author of considerable note at the South. When his state seceded he tendered his services to the Confederacy. He held important commands at Big Bethel, Yorktown, Mechanicsville, Cold Harbor, Malvern Hill, Second Bull Run, South Mountain, Antietam and Fredericksburg. Since the war he has been devoted to literary pursuits.

W. J. HARDEE.

General Hood was a native of Kentucky. He served creditably, working up from first lieutenant to lieutenant-general in the army of Virginia. The second Manassas, Antietam, Gettysburg, and Chickamauga form a part of his record. He lost a leg in the latter battle. Appointed in 1864 to succeed General Johnston in the West, he failed to meet the demands of the position, and after the disasters of Franklin and Nashville he was superseded by General Richard Taylor, a son of President Taylor.

J. B. HOOD.

THE PRESENT UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER LXXXIII.

General Grant Becomes President Grant—Pacific Railroad—"Alabama" Claims—Chicago Fire—Grant and Greeley—The Panic of 1873—The Centennial—Hayes and Tilden—Southern Policy of Hayes—His Administration—Great Railway Strike—Presidential Campaign, 1880—Garfield's Administration—Assassination—Arthur—Constitutional Amendments—Area and Public Domain—Population—Geographical Peculiarities.

THE last hope of a Southern Confederacy must have been dispelled by the election to the presidency of General Grant, the chief representative of the force which maintained the Union. He was at the head of the government from March 4, 1869, to March 4, 1877. Those eight years witnessed great prosperity followed by most distressing depression in business.

The first event of note was the completion of the Pacific Railroad, May, 1869. The work of construction was in progress six years. The Central Pacific extends from San Francisco to Ogden, in Utah, a distance of 882 miles, where it meets the Union Pacific, which extends to Omaha, Nebraska, a distance of 1,032 miles.

The next year, as we have seen, the work of reconstruction was completed by the readmission to Congress of all the Southern states, and the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment to the constitution. Early in the next year a joint high commission met at Washington to settle the claim of the United States against Great Britain, growing out of the depredations of the *Alabama* and other Confederate privateers fitted out in England. The result was the payment of an indemnity of $15,000,000 to this government by the British Government.

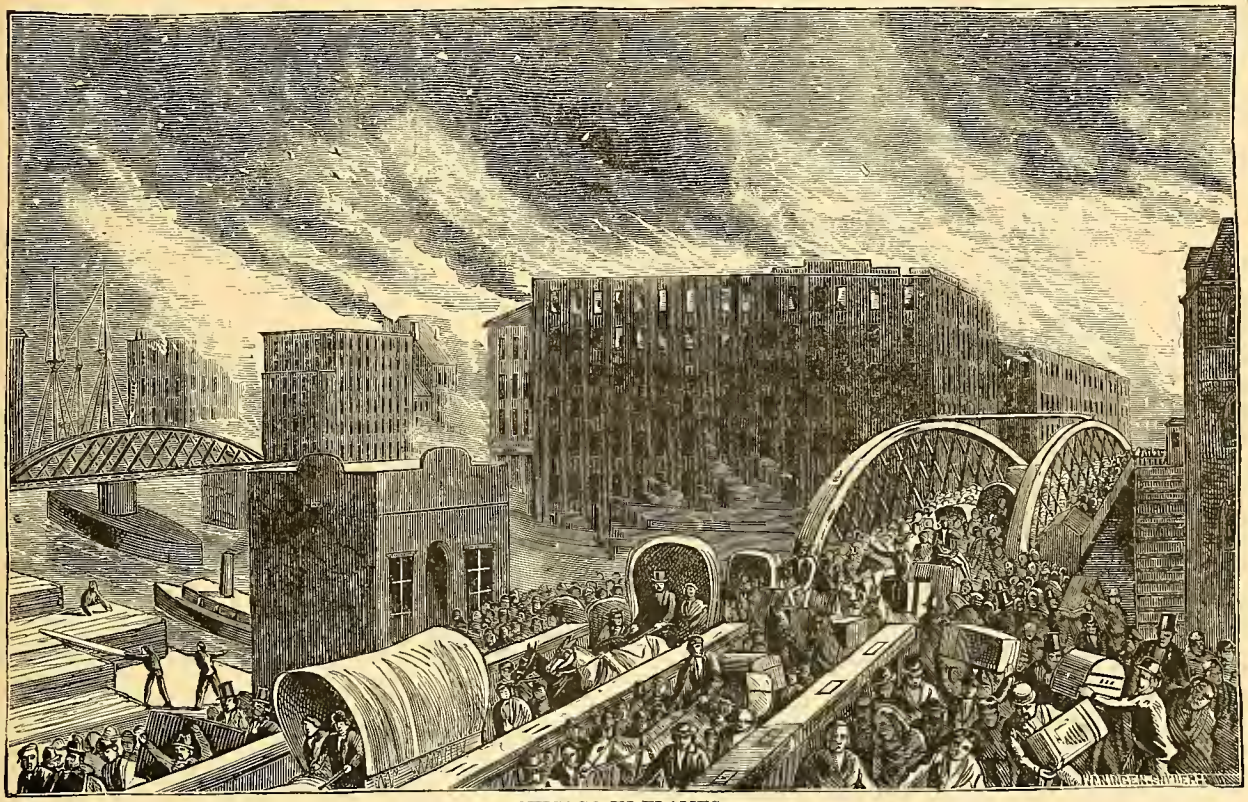
Late in the same year, October 9, 1871, occurred the most memorable conflagration of modern times, the Chicago Fire. The entire business portion of the city was destroyed and a great portion of the residence part. The number of lives lost could never be ascertained and was variously estimated at from 50 to 200. Not less than 100,000 people were rendered homeless, and many who were in affluence were rendered penniless. The loss of property was not less than $200,000,000. The immediate wants of the people were nobly met by a charity as wide as the civilized world and absolutely prodigal in its generosity. The next year another fire of vast, if greatly less proportions, visited Chicago. In 1872 Boston, too, had its "burnt district." It may be added that both cities long since rebuilt fully and upon a grand scale.

In the year 1872 occurred another presidential election. The first ticket in the field was headed by Horace Greeley, who for thirty years had been a leading journalist and ardent opponent of the Dem-

ocratic party. He was nominated by the Liberal Convention. The Democratic National Convention accepted him as the candidate of the Democracy in the hope that he would draw enough Republican votes to elect him, and he did; but the Democrats failed to fulfill their part of the contract. Many of them stayed away from the polls altogether. Some of them united in supporting for the presidency that eminent Democratic lawyer of New York, Charles O'Conor. General Grant was re-elected by an overwhelming majority, and with him Henry Wilson for Vice-President. Mr. Greeley made a very remarkable campaign upon the policy of reconciliation and good feeling between the sections. After the popular election and before the meeting of the electoral colleges of the several states, he died, and the nation was once more in mourning. No American was better known or more profoundly respected as a pure patriot than the founder of the New York *Tribune*, well called our second Franklin.

In the following October occurred the panic of 1873, which inaugurated a period of hard times, which continued until after resumption in 1879, nearly six years. Notwithstanding good crops, hard times continued year after year. The general depression of business gave rise to a political party which demanded a large increase in the volume of the currency, and deprecated any attempt to resume specie payments. This Greenback party was especially hostile to the national bank system.

The year 1876, which completed the first century of American independence, was celebrated by a grand exposition at Philadelphia, at which were represented all the countries of the world, civilized and uncivilized, the most successful affair of its kind ever projected.



CHICAGO IN FLAMES.

The year 1876 was also the year of another presidential election. Two governors were the standard-bearers of the two great parties, Rutherford B. Hayes, then Governor of Ohio, and Samuel J. Tilden, then Governor of New York. The former was nominated as a compromise candidate after a convention of memorable excitement. Many wanted General Grant nominated for a third term, but his

name was not presented in the convention. The strongest candidate in the field was James G. Blaine, at that time Speaker of the House of Representatives. It was to defeat him that the friends of the rival candidates united, a large majority of them, upon Mr. Hayes, who was the first choice of Ohio only. With him upon the ticket was associated William A. Wheeler, of New York. The Democratic nominee, Governor Tilden, was from the first the leading candidate before that convention, and the Vice-Presidential candidate, Governor Hendricks, of Indiana, was his chief competitor.

WILLIAM A. WHEELER.

The campaign was so very close that each party claimed the victory. Charges and countercharges of fraud were freely and fiercely made. The Republicans conceded that Mr. Tilden had lacked only one electoral vote of a majority. There was very serious danger of civil war. Both parties seemed ripe for bloodshed, but finally the patriotism and sagacity of a few men in Congress, notably Senators Edmunds of Vermont (Republican) and Thurman of Ohio (Democrat), secured the passage of a law creating a commission of arbitration. That extra-constitutional and national returning-board decided in favor of Hayes and Wheeler, who were duly declared elected and peaceably installed in office.

SAMUEL J. TILDEN.

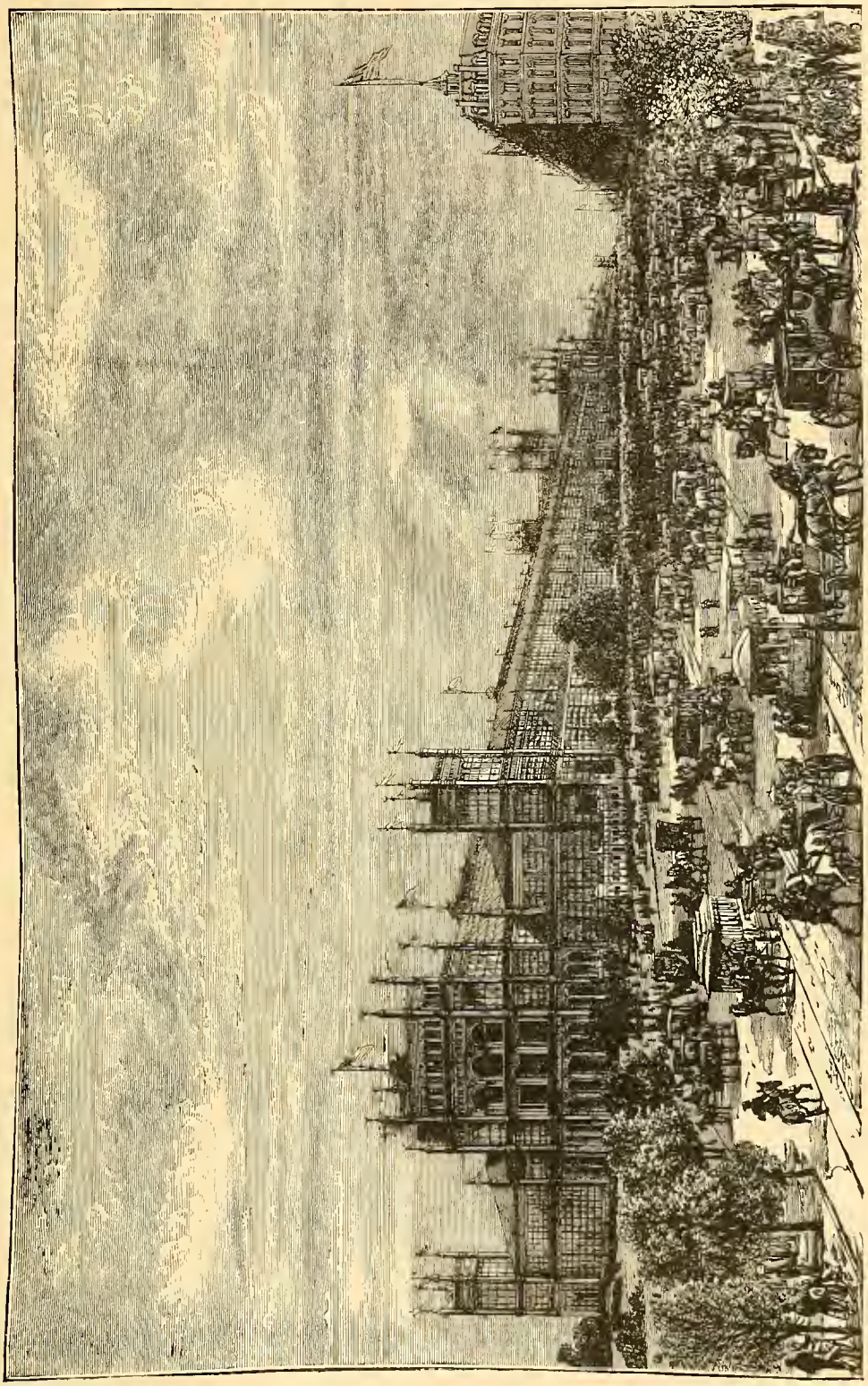
THOMAS A. HENDRICKS.

One of the first acts of President Hayes was to withdraw the Federal troops from the South, which was, in effect, turning out the Republican governors of Louisiana and South Carolina and turning the entire South over, politically, to the Democratic party. There was, thenceforth, a "Solid South."

Mr. Hayes was never popular with his party, nor did the opposition cease to denounce him as a fraudulent President. He succeeded, however, in so conducting the civil service as to command the confidence of the country and greatly strengthen the Republican party. During his term of office prosperity returned to the country.

In the summer of 1877 occurred the great railway strike. What began as a protest against an unjust reduction of wages on one particular railroad spread almost instantaneously in every direction, far and near. Transportation was very nearly suspended and the country filled with the wildest apprehension of a general crusade of labor against capital. Some lives were lost and a great deal of property destroyed. But soon all was quiet, and business of every kind resumed its customary channels and ways.

The spring of 1880 inaugurated another presidential campaign. The first convention held was the Republican gathering at Chicago. Mr. Blaine was again a leading candidate, with General Grant as his chief competitor. Day after day the conven-



VIEW OF THE MAIN BUILDING, INTERNATIONAL CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION.

tion was in session, and after numerous ballots it became evident that neither of the prominent candidates could bear off the prize. There were several compromise candidates in the field, in the hope of being what was called "the dark horse" in the race. But the convention went outside of them all and took up one of its own members, James A. Garfield of Ohio. General Garfield had been the recognized leader of the anti-Grant faction in the convention without being the champion of Mr. Blaine. His nomination created the wildest enthusiasm. Associated with him upon the ticket was Chester A. Arthur of New York, nominated as a representative of the Grant wing of the convention.

The Democrats placed in the field General Winfield S. Hancock, of the regular army, an officer of honorable record, who had rendered specially good service at Gettysburg. With him was nominated for Vice-President, Wm. H. English, a capitalist of Indiana. For two or three months the indications were that the Democrats had at last come to the turning of the tide, but the longer the campaign progressed the more evident did it become that a majority of the people were for continuing, if not perpetuating, the Republican party in power. The election was not dubious in its result. On the contrary, the election of Garfield and Arthur was promptly and frankly conceded.

General Garfield entered upon his office under peculiarly favorable auspices. All the signs pointed to a harmonious and prosperous administration. But hardly had he begun the discharge of the duties of his great office before the spirit of faction showed itself. So trivial a matter as the appointment of a collector of customs at the port of New York served to kindle the flames of a most senseless war of factions. The press of the country entered upon it with the utmost enthusiasm, as if the fate of the nation depended upon the *personnel* of that office. The two United States Senators from New York resigned their seats and became candidates for re-election. It was very soon apparent that the legislature of the state, then in session at Albany, would not re-elect them, and that served as oil upon the fire. While the country was being inflamed by such irrational and causeless factiousness, came the report of a pistol. It was fired July 2, by Charles J. Guiteau, in a railway depot at Washington. Hardly had the sound died away before the terrible news was flashed wherever in this land or any other electricity is a medium of intelligence that President Garfield had been shot by an assassin. The shock was even greater than when Lincoln fell at the hands of Booth, for the passions of the war had died away and the people were not accustomed, as in 1865, to the flow of blood.

Mr. Garfield lingered in great agony for many days. Day after day and week after week the public watched with the agony of suspense at his bedside, and when at last death brought relief to the heroic patient, September 19, all sections and both parties united in profound grief. If there were any to sympathize with the assassin, there were certainly none ready to acknowledge such sympathy. In due time the assassin was brought to trial, when the question raised was whether he was sane or insane. The verdict of the jury was that he was sane, and public sentiment very generally commended the jury. It was felt that acquittal on the plea of insanity would be contrary to public policy. It may be remarked that the Guiteau case added the word crank to the English language, to designate a person of naturally unsound mind, neither sane nor insane, strictly speaking.

President Arthur entered upon the duties of his office September 22, with the promise to carry out the policy of his predecessor, and with the public hopeful as to his success. It is too early now to set forth what has been done by his administration. No bill of any importance has yet been presented to him for signature, except the Chinese bill, which he vetoed, and the mere distribution of offices belongs to the trade and handicraft of the politician, and not to the profession and lofty art of the statesman.

It is now time to dismiss from the mind the political aspects of the country and devote the remainder of this chapter to the actual condition of the United States, reserving industry, literature and invention for separate consideration.

The constitution of the United States has been amended fifteen times, the last three amendments being a part of reconstruction, as we have seen. The first ten were added as early as December, 1791, and grew out of the discussion of the constitution as originally submitted to the states. The eleventh amendment, which in effect exempts a state from being made a defendant in a court of justice, was the result of a suit brought in the United States Court to recover a debt due an individual from the state of

Georgia. That pernicious amendment has borne fruit in the repeated and enormous repudiation of state debts. The twelfth amendment provides some changes in the method of electing presidents and vice-presidents, and grew out of the Jefferson-Burr election. This amendment was adopted September 25, 1804.

The total area of the United States is about 4,000,000 square miles, inclusive of Alaska, which is valueless for all purposes of agriculture. Without Alaska, the area is, in round numbers, 3,000,000 square miles. A writer in a recent number of the *North American Review* gives the following analysis of the public lands of the country, exclusive of Alaska:

"The public domain of the United States, acquired by cession from the several states and by treaty from France, Spain, and Mexico, Texas and Russia, amounts to 2,894,235.91 square miles, or about 1,852,310,000 acres, and its cost was, in round numbers, $322,000,000, of which sum the Government has received back about $200,000,000 for lands sold. Down to July, 1880, the Government of the United States had disposed by sale of about 170,000,000 acres; by act of donation, 3,000,000 acres; in bounties for military and naval service, 61,000,000 acres; for internal improvements, 7,000,000 acres; by grants of saline lands to states, 560,000 acres; for town sites and county seats, 150,000; by patent to railway companies, 45,000,000; canal grants, 4,000,000; for military reads, 1,300,000; by sale of mineral lands (since 1866), 148,000; homesteads, 55,000,000; scrip, 2,900,000; coal lands, 10,750; stone and timber lands (act of 1878), 21,000; swamp and overflowed lands given to states, 69,000,000; for educational purposes, 78,000,000; under Timber-culture Act, 9,350,000; Graduation Act of 1854, 25,000,000. Mineral and timber lands are now our most valuable assets. The pasturage lands are of nominal value apart from the mineral underlying them. Our remaining public lands, exclusive of Alaska, were, in June, 1880, estimated as follows: Timber lands, 85,000,000; coal lands, defined, 5,530,000; precious metal bearing lands, 64,000,000; but this area will be increased as the pasturage andtimber lands are explored; lands in Southern states, agricultural, timber and mineral, 25,000,000; lands irrigable from streams, 30,000,000; pasturage, desert, including certain lands in Indian reservations and barrens, 556,000,000."

There have been ten censuses of the United States, the first having been taken in 1790, and all at regular intervals of ten years. The population when first ascertained was 3,929,322, and ninety years later it was 50,152,559. No other country could ever make such an exhibit of growth. From the time the War of the Revolution began (1775) until the close of the last war with England (1815), a period of forty years, the increase by immigration was very small. In 1816 and 1817 there was a famine in Europe, and a vast number of people crossed the ocean to seek homes in this land of plenty. All immigration came from Europe until some years after the discovery of the gold-fields of California, since which time a few drops from the great ocean of Chinese population have fallen upon the Pacific coast. The Chinaman does not bring his family, and is sure to return to his native land. Even his bones, if he dies, are taken back there. The permanent population of the country is wholly European in its origin, with the exception of the African and the aboriginal Americans. All other details of population and area are given in tabular form later on.

The United States is often divided into North and South, or East and West, but the really natural divisions are three, the Atlantic states, extending westward so as to include the Appalachian, or Alleghany, Mountain region; the Mississippi Valley; Pacific Highlands and slope, the latter including the Rocky Mountains, the Pacific plateau, Sierra Nevada and Cascade ranges and the Pacific slope. The Appalachian range extends from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Alabama. Instead of a system of mountains for its main feature, the Mississippi Valley has the great twin river, Mississippi-Missouri, 4,300 miles long, the grandest stream in all the world, not excepting the broader but shorter Amazon. The Rocky Mountains are vast table-lands. A little gold and silver may be found in the Atlantic states, none in the Mississippi valley, but an abundance in the Rocky Mountains and the region between that plateau and the Pacific ocean. Further details on these points will appear in connection with the consideration of States and Territories of the United States.

GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER LXXXIV.

FEDERAL RELATIONS—CONSTITUTIONAL LIMITATIONS—LEGISLATIVE BRANCH OF THE GOVERNMENT—THE PRESIDENT AND THE SENATE—PRESIDENTIAL QUALIFICATIONS AND FUNCTIONS—THE CABINET AND DEPARTMENTS—SECRETARY OF STATE AND FOREIGN RELATIONS—THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT AND ITS BUREAUS—THE WAR DEPARTMENT SECRETARY AND THE ARMY—THE NAVY; ERICSSON AND THE NAVAL DEPARTMENT—SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR; PUBLIC LANDS, PENSIONS, PATENTS, CENSUS, EDUCATION AND AGRICULTURE—POST-OFFICES AND POST ROUTES—FRANKLIN AND ARMSTRONG—DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE—THE JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED STATES—TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENT—APPOINTMENTS AND CONFIRMATIONS—RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE—MODE OF ELECTING PRESIDENTS AND VICE-PRESIDENTS.

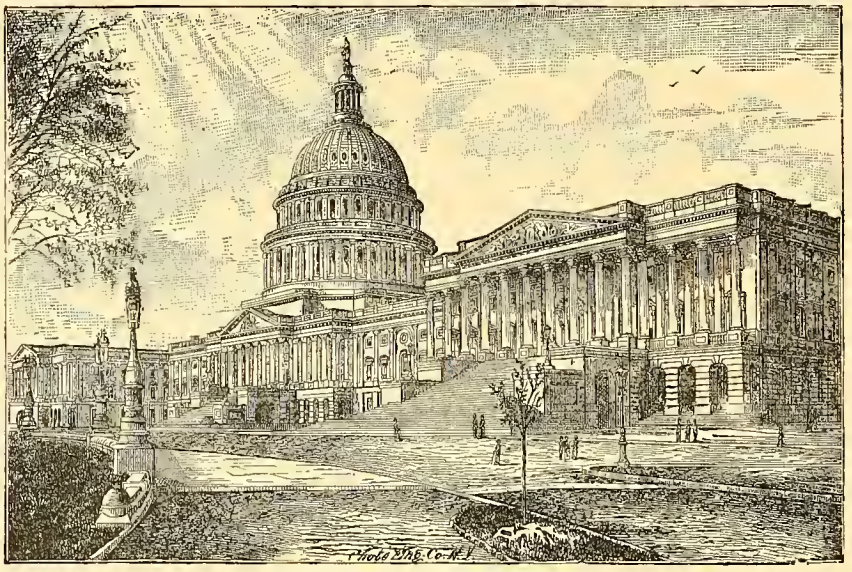
THE most curious feature and intricate problem in American government is the relation of the United States to the several states. It is complicated in a way quite foreign to the usual experience of nations and out of it, no less than the institution of slavery, grew the war between the North and the South. It is not within the design of this volume to discuss constitutional law, but simply to point out the undisputed practical facts in the case.

The broad ground of the constitution in restricting the general government to functions specified in the organic law itself covered a great deal of territory. It follows that the ordinary purposes of government, such as the prevention and punishment of crimes, the enforcement of contracts and the general relation of public affairs, belong, as a rule, to the state. The United States may be said to be supplemental to the state, designed to prevent all clashing and injustice between the people of different states and to obviate the vexatious restrictions upon the liberty of person and traffic within the country which would be inevitable if each state were absolutely independent. The Federal system has the further advantage of the removal of all danger of interstate wars which, in view of European experience, was certainly a wise precaution on the part of the constitutional fathers.

The general government is divided into three branches, legislative, executive and judicial. The legislative has three subdivisions, the Senate, the House of Representatives and the President, the first two, constituting Congress, having the power by a two-thirds majority to pass a bill over the President's veto. The third branch is therefore not coequal with the other two, while they are co-ordinate. The signature of the President must be attached to a bill before it can become an act of Congress, or it must receive, subsequent to the veto, the two-thirds majority specified. The power to originate bills of taxation belongs to the House, which body can elect its own presiding officer—speaker—while the Senate

is presided over by the Vice-President, unless that officer is called upon to act as President, in which case the Senate elects its own President, *pro tem.*, as he is called. Otherwise the powers of the two branches of Congress are equal.

The Senate consists of two members from each state, the term being six years. The senators are elected by their respective state legislatures. In case of a vacancy during the adjournment of the legislature the governor of the state can fill the vacancy until the legislature convenes and elects a successor to fill the unexpired term. A senator must be at least thirty years of age and a citizen of the state he represents. A member of the House must be at least twenty-five years of age and a resident of the state. Congress fixes a basis of representation in that body upon a basis of population, for which purpose a census is taken once in ten years. Every state has at least one member of the lower house. The territories are represented therein by delegates empowered to speak but not to vote. The term of a member of the House is two years. Each senator, representative and delegate receives a salary of $5,000 a year, the speaker, like the Vice-President, receiving $8,000.



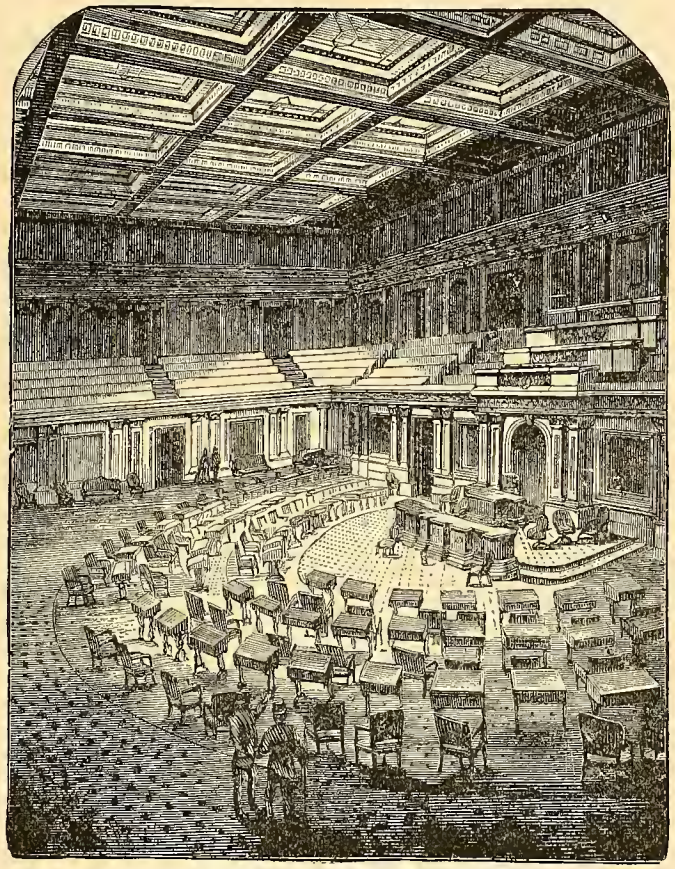
THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

The Executive Department consists of the President and the executive offices under him, and the Senate when in executive session. Such sessions are held in secret. Their objects are to ratify or reject treaties with other nations and confirm or reject appointments to federal offices. In the exercise of a veto power the Senate is a part of the executive. Some appointments are regarded as too trivial to come before the Senate. The classification is fixed by law and has never occasioned difficulty or controversy. The exercise, however, of executive functions by the Senate has often given rise to bitter controversy. Such conflicts of opinion (for that is all they are or can be) have always been temporary in their effect. The legislative functions of the President are trivial, comparatively. The great burden of his duty is to administer the laws. He is the chief executive, most emphatically.

To be President of the United States or Vice-President, one must be a native citizen. Naturalized citizens are barred from the presidency, including the vice-presidential contingency, and from no other political preferment. The President must be thirty-five years of age, or over. The term is four years, beginning on March 4. There is no law against repeated re-elections, except the unwritten law of custom, which has restricted every President so far to two terms, at the most. The salary of the President is $50,000 a year. It was half that until 1873. The proper title of the President in addressing him is "Mr. President." The Executive Mansion, familiarly called the "White House," is both office and residence. It is located one mile from the capitol at Washington. The President is provided with a small corps of private secretaries for subordinate routine duties, at the public expense, and the mansion is furnished by the government.

The President has for his chief assistants in the discharge of his duties a body of advisers and high functionaries called a Cabinet. That body

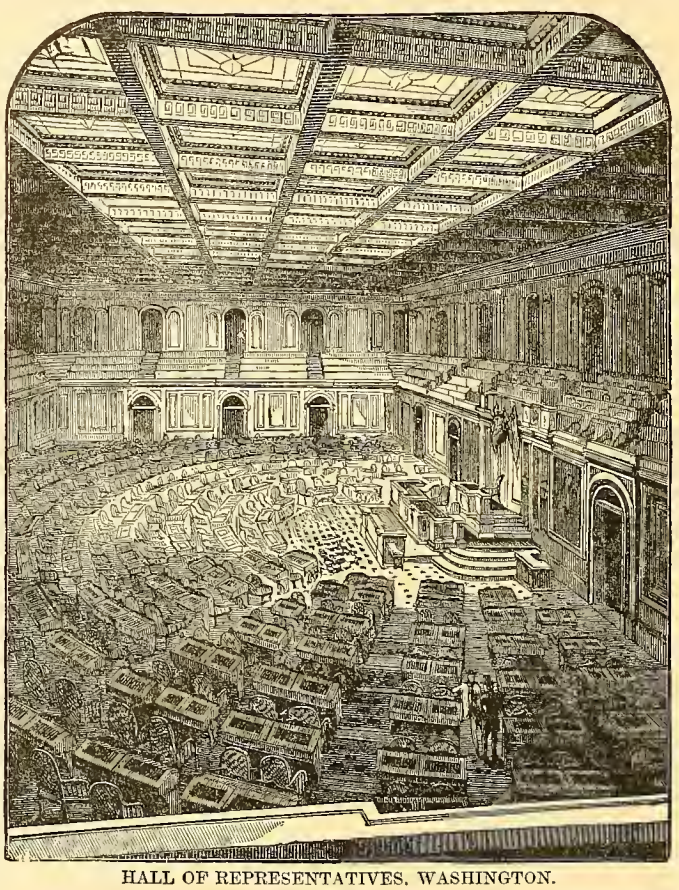
consists of the Secretaries of State, Treasury, War, the Navy, and the Interior, together with the Postmaster-General and the Attorney-General. The departments over which they respectively preside are indicated by their titles. Originally the idea was that the Secretary of State should be a premier, in the English sense, but practically, he is simply the head of foreign affairs, having supervision over all diplomatic and consular matters. Each cabinet officer receives a salary of $8,000 a year, is appointed by the President, the Senate consenting. The cabinet forms an official household, with the President as its head. In many of the details the duties of the different departments vary with the enactments of each Congress; but in fundamental duties and divisions of responsibility the departments remain unchanged. The Cabinet has grown in numbers with the growth of the nation and the necessities of the general government. Originally there were but three ministers—Secretary of State, of the Treasury, and of War. In 1798 the portfolio of the Navy was added. During Jackson's administration the Postmaster-General was made a member of the cabinet, and during Tyler's the Attorney-General was admitted into the political family of the President. Before those promotions they were mere heads of bureaus. In 1849 the Department of the Interior was created, since which time there have been no changes, except that during the administration of President Grant the functions of the Attorney-General were materially enlarged by the creation of the Department of Justice. Prior to that time the Attorney-General was simply the legal adviser of the President and the Cabinet. The Constitution does not distinctly recognize the Cabinet, excepting by the nominal distinction of "heads of departments."



THE SENATE CHAMBER, WASHINGTON.

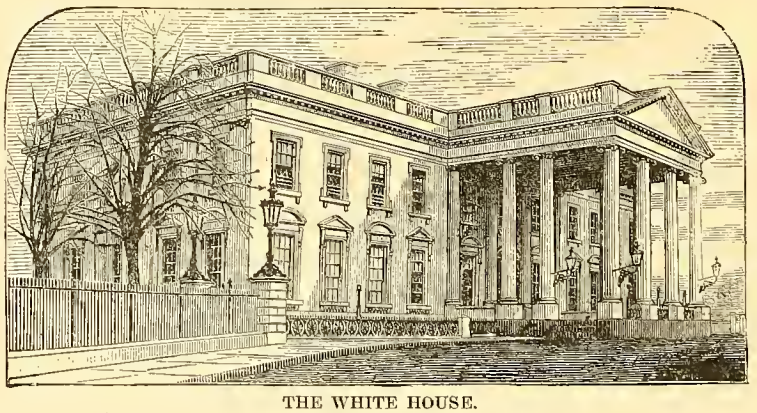
The Secretary of State was designed originally to be the head secretary of the government, including both Congress and the President. To him is intrusted the duty of promulgating the laws. In his office are kept the original bills and joint resolutions, the seal of the United States, and all treaties, postal conventions and other state papers, properly so called. But the especial department of state is Foreign Affairs. All communications with foreign governments, direct or indirect, and all diplomatic and consular matters, are within the jurisdiction of this secretary. Any American citizen going abroad is entitled to a passport issued by the Secretary of State, which document will serve as his credential of citizenship in case he may have occasion to want the protection of his government. The Secretary of State is supposed to be the most intimate political friend the President has—his most trusted adviser on all points. He makes no departmental report to Congress, as the other secretaries and the Postmaster-General do. He is frequently called upon to make special reports, and the voluminous

diplomatic correspondence is published. The State Department also issues monthly consular reports, giving commercial and industrial information in regard to the countries and cities with which this government sustains consular relations.



HALL OF REPRESENTATIVES, WASHINGTON.

The representatives of the United States are called envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary; ministers resident; charge d' affairs; consul generals, consuls and consular agents, according to their several ranks and duties. The important ministers have secretaries of legation. Treaties may be negotiated by ministers, by commissions appointed especially for the purpose of settling some specific matter of an international nature, or by the Secretary of State and the representative at Washington of the other high contracting party. Extradition treaties are the arrangements made for the surrender of persons accused of crime who have fled from one country to the other. Nearly all civilized nations have such treaties with each other.

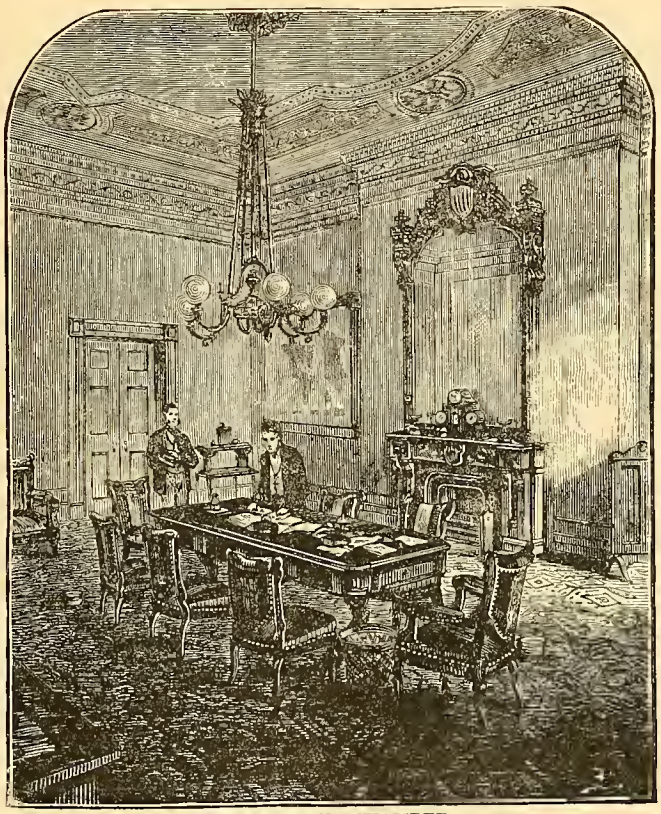


THE WHITE HOUSE.

The Secretary of the Treasury has charge of the financial affairs of the government, under such laws as Congress may enact. He receives the money of the government and makes its disbursements. No money can be paid out unless there is warrant for it in an appropriation by Congress. In a Treasury, or fiscal, point of view, July 1 is new year's day. All annual reports and estimates of the government receipts or disbursements are for the year ending June 31.

This Secretary has under him several heads of bureaus and two associated secretaries. The Comptroller, Second Comptroller and five auditors have charge of disbursements; the Commissioner of Internal Revenue and the Commissioner of Customs look after the collections, although one of the assistant secretaries is virtually chief of customs. The Treasurer has the control of the funds. The Comptroller of the Currency supervises the national banks, the

Director of the Mint has charge of the coining of money. The Independent Treasury is the term applied to the system of sub-treasuries or branch offices of the Treasury in the larger cities of the country at which the actual receipts and disbursements of the government are largely transacted. The head of a sub-treasury is called Assistant Treasurer. The Sub-Treasury at New York contains very much more money than the Treasury at Washington. Minute daily reports must be made to the Secretary of the Treasury and the Treasurer, and the variation of a penny in the account would be detected at headquarters and call for an explanation.



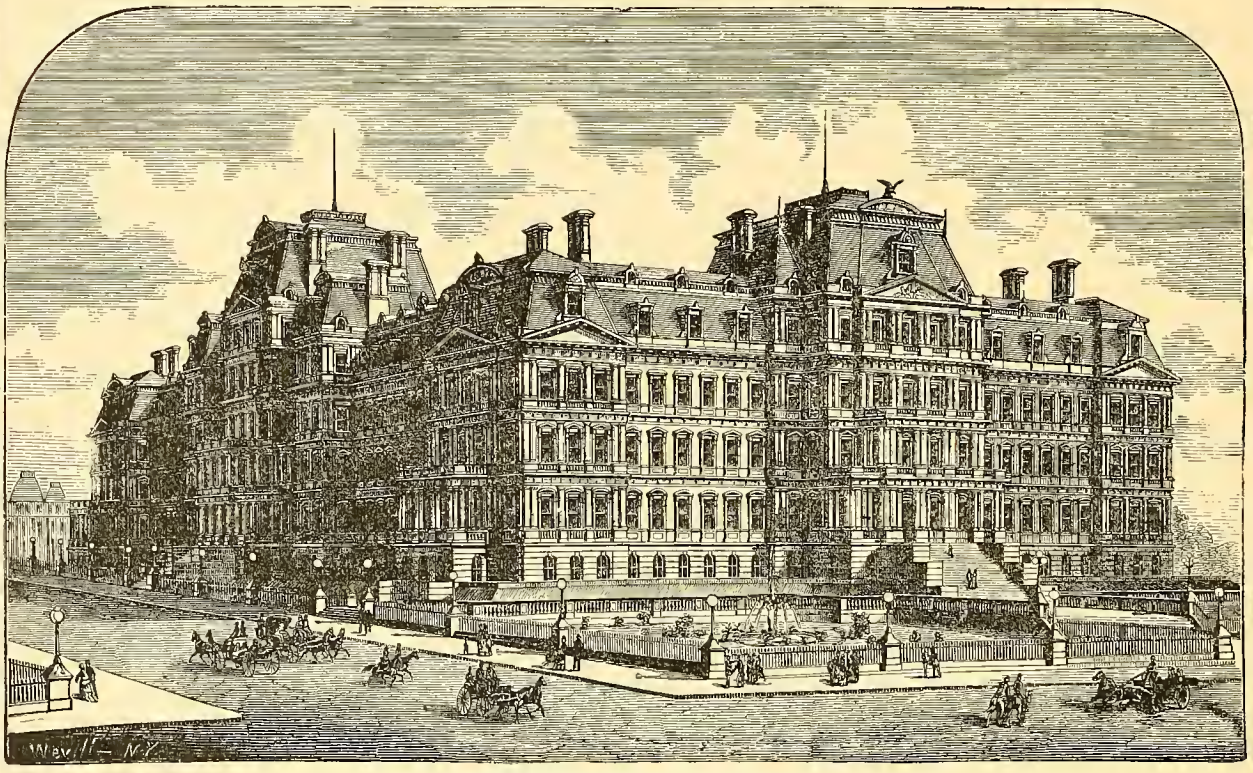
THE CABINET CHAMBER.

During the late war nearly every conceivable method of taxation was resorted to. Before that time the receipts from customs or the tariff and from the sale of public land amply sufficed to meet the demands of the government. At one period the revenue was excessive and Congress was sorely puzzled to know what to do with the surplus. The exigencies of war rendered necessary the creation of the Bureau of Internal Revenue. Since the restoration of peace the domestic taxation has been greatly reduced and simplified, until now it is almost wholly confined to spirits, distilled and brewed, and to tobacco. The tax on highwines was $2 per gallon for several years and the temptation to defraud the government was so great that the enormous combination was formed known as the Whisky Ring. It was a case of spontaneous production. The evil spread and seemed to be incurable until it was exposed, prosecuted and crushed during the two last years of Grant's last term of office. The most complicated and elaborate feature of the Treasury Department is the one having to do with the collection of duties on imports. Nearly every Congress "tinkers" the tariff, and it takes a rare expert to be master of the subject in its practical workings. The objects of these levies are twofold, the raising of revenue and the fostering of domestic interests, productive and manufacturing. Those who insist that a tariff should be for revenue only are called free-traders. As a rule, the protective policy has prevailed in this country. The Secretary of the Treasury has no voice in determining the policy to be adopted; but the rules and regulations promulgated by him bear to the statutes much the same relation that the decisions of the courts do to law in general. This remark applies, only less conspicuously, to the other departments. There is a tax on the tonnage, or carrying capacity, of vessels, and out of the relations of the Treasury Department to transportation by water grow many complications. The constitution contemplates the regulation by the general government of commerce between the states, but that part of the organic law has thus far remained very nearly a dead letter. The constitution forbids the imposition of duties upon exports, also upon trade between the states, and therein it has never been violated.

The Secretary of the Treasury is forbidden by law, as are his subordinates, to be in any way inter-

ested in any branch of business which might come before them for official action.

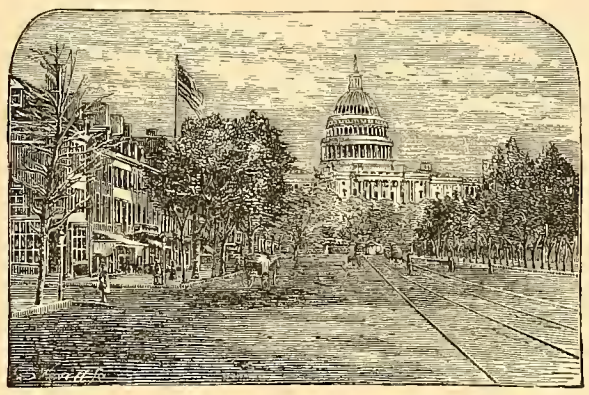
The Secretary of War became, under E. M. Stanton during the great Conflict, virtual commander-in-chief of the army, a position assigned by the constitution to the President. In time of peace the standing army is so small that this department in less important than any one of the several bureaus of the Treasury. Small as is the army, it might be much smaller if it were not for troubles with the Indians of the far west. The military officers are: general, lieutenant-general, major-general, brigadier-general, colonel, lieutenant-colonel, major, captain, first lieutenant, second lieutenant. These are regularly and formally commissioned, and for the most part are graduates of the military academy at West Point, New York, the only institution for instruction in the science of war maintained by the government. The Secretary of War has a supervisory charge of that academy, also of depots of war material, arsenals, military hospitals and asylums. Jefferson Davis was Secretary of War under Pierce, and a son of President Lincoln was appointed to the position by President Garfield, but the one great reputation made in the Department was that of Edwin M. Stanton, who sustained that great burden from 1862 to 1868, doing as much to preserve the Union as any one man. The office was conspicuously disgraced by Secretary Belknap, who held it from 1869 to 1876. Besides strictly military matters, the War Department has charge of public works involving civil engineering. The erection and care of United States buildings belong to the Treasury Department, but river and harbor improvements are made through the Department of War.



THE NEW DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

The least of all the Departments is the Navy. The President sustains the same relation to the navy that he does to the army. There are, besides paymasters, nine grades of naval officers, corresponding in rank with major-general and the lower grades in the army. These are: rear-admirals, vice-admirals, commodores, captains, commanders, lieutenant commanders, lieutenants, masters, ensigns. The government has one naval academy. It is located at

Annapolis, Maryland. Like the military academy at West Point, this naval school is expected to have one student from each congressional district and ten appointed by the President, without regard to locality. The course of study in both covers a period of four years and has special reference to the profession in view. The students are educated at the expense of the government, and must give at least four years to the service after graduation, unless specially relieved or dismissed. There are several navy-yards and one naval observatory, the latter being in Washington. All coast surveys belong to the Navy Department, but lighthouses, buoys and beacons, designed to protect the shipping interest, and marine hospitals for sick or disabled seamen, are attached to the Treasury Department. The present navy of the United States is almost a nonentity. In the event of war with any foreign power laying the slightest claims to naval preparations, it would be necessary to make vast expenditures for men-of-war.



PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE, WASHINGTON.

No splendid reputation was ever made in the office of Secretary of the Navy, but besides the brilliant achievements of Paul Jones, Perry, Decatur, Foote and Porter, this country can boast a citizen, John Ericsson, whose genius for invention revolutionized naval architecture, and rendered obsolete the navies of the world.

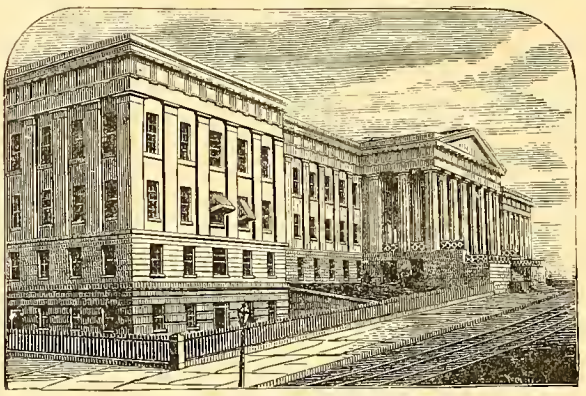
The Interior Department, once the least of all the portfolios, has steadily risen in importance until it is hardly inferior to that of the Treasury. It was designed originally as a relief to the State Department. It has several bureaus of great responsibility. Indian Affairs is the chief of these. The agents, inspectors and others employed in this branch of the service, as explained in the chapter on the American Indian, are under the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. The Pension Bureau is in that department, and it is no exaggeration to say that the Army and the Navy Departments combined are not in time of peace as important and difficult of administration as this one bureau has been since the war of 1861-65. Only sick or crippled soldiers of the Federal army or their widowed still unmarried, or those actually dependent for support upon the soldier who died in the service, are entitled to pensions, but the disbursements are so immense and the liabilities to fraud so very great that the highest order of executive ability is required, and even then enormous frauds are inevitable. No other branch of the service is so open to abuse. The actual payments are made by local pension agents, who handle no money, but have credits from time to time at a sub-treasury and check against it.

The public lands of the country, an elaborate statement in regard to which will be found in the chapter on The Present United States, are under the care of a bureau of the Interior Department. Besides the commissioner at Washington there are surveyors-general and registers and receivers of public money for lands. The former divide the land and define boundaries, so that the government can convey a title, and the registers and receivers attend to the business incident to such conveyance. A section is the unit of measurement. It contains 640 acres, or a mile square, and thirty-six sections make a township. Even since the organization of the first territory, the Northwest Territory, the government has set aside one section in each township for the support of public schools.

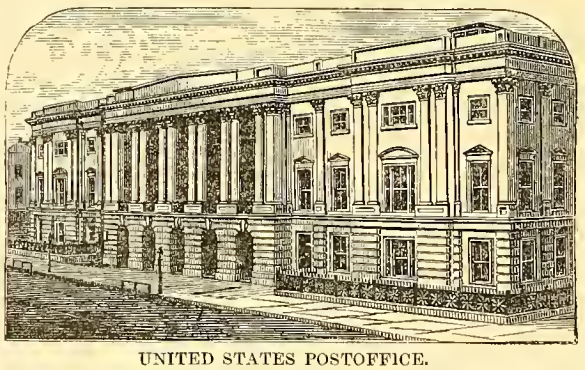
The original policy of the government was to sell the public land, and that in large quantities only. Later it adopted the plan of encouraging purchases by actual settlers. This pioneer policy was supplemented in 1862 by the homestead act, under which the actual settler can, by the payment of fees hardly adequate to pay the cost to the government of doing the business, secure a farm, only he must reside on it long enough to give assurance of good faith. If the homesteader served in the Federal army and was honorably discharged, the time spent in the service will reduce that much the time required to perfect a homestead title. The period re-

quired is five years, and the amount of land that can be taken up in that way is 160 acres, or a quarter-section. Public land can also be secured by preemption, or purchase, the price varying from $1.25 to $2.50 per acre.

All letters patent designed to stimulate invention and secure to the inventor his right of property therein, are issued by the Patent office, which is a bureau of the Interior Department. Patents are granted for seventeen years, and cannot be renewed. It is often difficult to determine whether an application for a patent should be granted or denied, and much litigation grows out of this branch of the government. The census is taken by the Interior Department. The original idea of a census was simply the ascertainment once in ten years of the actual population of the country, with the details of locality, with a view to determining the apportionment of members of the House of Representatives. Each new census has been more elaborate and varied than its predecessor, and under General F. A. Walker, who took the censuses of 1870 and 1880, the range of statistical information afforded by the reports of this bureau is most exhaustive. It is a marvel of completeness and accuracy.



PATENT OFFICE. (South Front.)



UNITED STATES POSTOFFICE.

The bureau of railroads has been created to ascertain and conserve the interest of the government in the railways of the country which received subsidies, land or bonds, in aid of their construction. The bureau of education is hardly more than a bureau of educational information. The bureau of agriculture is another branch of the Interior Department which has a high-sounding name without having accomplished much real good. Congress maintains it at considerable expense. It should be a department on a plane of equality with the other cabinet offices. The obligation owed it, thus far, by the agricultural interest of the country is infinitesimally small.

The Postoffice Department is devoted to one line of duty, the transmission of mail matter from one place and person to another place and person. Distance is not taken into account in determining the charge for this service, but there are several classes of mails, with rates according to classification. The Postmaster-General has a great army of assistants, superintendents, postmasters, postal-clerks, route agents and others under him. The real paternity of the postoffice of this country belongs to Benjamin Franklin, who organized it nearly a generation before independence was declared. It should be a strictly business institution, as much so as an express company or a railroad enterprise; but as a matter of fact it has long combined politics with postal matters. The most notable improvement made in this branch of the service was not due to any postmaster-general, but to a subordinate officer, George B. Armstrong of Chicago, the father of the railway mail service, which was established during the civil war. Other improvements have been made within a comparatively short time, such as the registration of important letters, the issuance of postal money orders, and the distribution of mail in large cities by carriers. The dead-letter office is located at Washington, and is designed to return to the writer letters which have for any reason failed to reach

their destination. In due time all such waifs reach the morgue of the mail and the sender is notified. It is exceedingly difficult in many cases to arrive at the proper allowance to be made for carrying the mail, especially by routes off the line of railroads. All such routes are called "star routes." For the most part these lines of mail, are on the frontier and in out-of-the-way places where they are indispensable aids to settlement. They are often the veritable harbingers of civilization and development.

The Attorney-General is the head of the Department of Justice, and as such, has a general supervision over the attorneys and marshals of the United States in the several judicial districts. He is often called upon to render an opinion upon the interpretation of a statute of the United States. The government has in him its "senior counsel."

Besides these two branches of the government, the legislative and the executive, is one more, the judiciary. The constitution provides for one Supreme Court, and such inferior courts as Congress might create. In addition to the Supreme Court with one chief justice at a salary of $10,500, and eight associate justices with a salary of $10,000, there are nine circuits, presided over sometimes by a member of the supreme bench and sometimes by the judge of that particular circuit. The salary of the circuit judge is $6,000 a year. The number of the district judges varies from time to time, and their compensation is not uniform. There are now 60 districts. All these judges are appointed for life or good behavior. The judges appoint their own clerks, and generally for life. The United States marshals are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate, for terms of four years. The same is true of district attorneys.

It remains to speak of the territories, from a governmental point of view. The governor, secretary, and judge, or judges, as the case may be, are appointed by the President, the people being allowed to elect their own legislatures. A territorial governor or judge receives a salary of $2,600, the secretary $1,800. Besides the regular territories, which are prospective states, is the District of Columbia. Its affairs are under the control, in the main, of three commissioners, appointed by the President, and entitled to a salary of $5,000 per annum.

It may be added in this connection that in almost all cases appointments are for four years in the Presidential offices, as those are called which require the President to submit the name to the Senate, while subordinate positions are subject to the caprices of politics, the mutations of friendship or the freaks of personal whim. As a matter of fact the great bulk of the civil service is performed by officers, clerks and employes who are retained on their merits by their respective chiefs. Since 1861 women have been freely and satisfactorily employed in the public service of the United States.

In concluding this chapter it may be well to define the rights of suffrage and mode of election in this country. No one can be debarred from this right on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. The details on this subject are given in tabular form, the conditions of elective franchise being different in different states.

In choosing a President and Vice-President the mode required is for each state to elect by the people or appoint by the legislature (the latter is now nowhere done) as many electors as the state has members of both houses of Congress. Those electors are all chosen on the same day, the first Monday in the November preceding the expiration of a presidential term. The electors of each state meet on the first Wednesday of December at the state capital, forming an Electoral College, and casting their ballots for President and Vice-President, and send the returns to the President of the Senate the first Wednesday in January. The second Wednesday in February both houses of Congress meet as one body and the President of the Senate opens and declares the vote. If no candidate has received a majority of all the votes cast, the House proceeds to elect a President, the Senate a Vice-President. In the House the voting must be by states, and only the candidates having the three highest Electoral College votes are eligible.

Such is the government of the United States in the more important of its many ramifications.

PRESIDENTS AND PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS.

CHAPTER LXXXV.

THE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES—BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF EACH OF THE TWENTY-ONE PRESIDENTS, IN THE ORDER OF THEIR RESPECTIVE TERMS OF OFFICE—HISTORICAL SKETCH OF EACH OF THE TWENTY-FOUR PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER.

IT is proposed in this chapter to give brief biographies of the Presidents of the United States and present specifically the several presidential elections. As some of our Presidents were elected twice and others again were only elected to the vice-presidency, it is thought best to keep the two branches of the subject distinct. In both cases the chronological order will be followed, beginning with the Presidents themselves and closing with the elections. Care will be observed not to repeat what has been brought out in previous chapters, so far as possible.

George Washington was born in Virginia, February 22, 1732. His death occurred December 14, 1799. He was a planter with some knowledge of surveying and experience in the Virginia House of Burgesses, or Legislature. His military career and presidential service belong to history rather than to biography. When the war closed he retired to his plantation at Mount Vernon until called to serve as president of the constitutional convention, and later, of the United States. He refused a third term. His private life was without reproach. The management of his estate was more to his taste than the cares and perplexities of office. In manner he was courtly. He never fully identified himself with any political party, but leaned strongly toward Federalism.

John Adams was born in Massachusetts, October 19, 1735, and died July 4, 1826. He was a graduate of Harvard College, a lawyer by profession, and by temperament an imperious partisan. His public career may be said to date from the passage of the Stamp Act by Parliament. He early and eloquently advocated the union and independence of the colonies. From 1778 until 1788 he represented the United States at either the French or English court. He sympathized with the aristocratic tastes of Washington rather than the democratic ideas of Jefferson. He attributed his defeat for re-election to the presidency quite as much to Hamilton's lukewarmness as to republican opposition, and retired to private life embittered and unhappy. He lived to witness the election of his son to the presidency.

Thomas Jefferson was born in Virginia, April 13, 1743, and died July 4, 1826. The family was of Welsh extraction. Educated at William and Mary's College, he adopted the profession of law. His service in the Continental Congress was brief. The Revolution fairly inaugurated, he returned to Virginia and devoted himself to the establishment of

OUR PRESIDENTS.

republican institutions in that state. He represented this country at the French court from 1784 to 1789. During Washington's administration he was Secretary of State. After he retired from public life, at the close of his second presidential term, Jefferson devoted himself to the advancement of the cause of education and the interest of agriculture. He was a voluminous writer, and his works constitute a storehouse of political wisdom.

James Madison, also of Virginia, was born March 16, 1751, and died June 28, 1836. He was a graduate of Princeton College, and remarkable for his studious habits. He had no gifts of oratory. He first distinguished himself as an advocate of religious liberty in Virginia. He served a short time in the Continental Congress, but not conspicuously. His supreme service was in the convention which framed the Constitution of the United States, where his profound learning and thorough republicanism made him greatly useful. He was a member of the first four Congresses. He might have been a formidable rival of Jefferson's, but preferred to bide his time. Jefferson made him his Secretary of State and secured his acceptance by the Republican party as heir to the presidency. In private life he was hardly less useful to education and agriculture than Jefferson. His life was serene and faultless.

James Monroe was born in Virginia, April 28, 1758, and died in New York, July 4, 1831. He was the first poor man in the presidential office. He inherited no estate, and was too continuously in public life to acquire wealth. He served in the Continental Congress from 1783 to 1786; in the United States Senate from 1790 to 1794; as governor from 1799 to 1802, and again in 1811; as minister to France, Spain and England from 1802 to 1808; as Secretary of State from 1811 to 1817, and as President from 1817 to 1825. He was a justice of the peace in Virginia for some time after the expiration of his presidential term. His last years were clouded with the perplexities of poverty. His ability was hardly above mediocrity. The "machine" set up by Jefferson made him President.

John Quincy Adams was born in Massachusetts, July 11, 1767, and died at the national capital February 23, 1848. Although a graduate of Harvard College, the second Adams was mainly educated abroad. He was a ripe scholar, a tireless worker, and a great orator. He had none of the tact of the politician. His best services before the presidency were diplomatic. In the Senate from 1805 to 1808 he failed to give satisfaction to his constituents. His state was strongly Federal, but he joined the Republican party. Monroe made him his Secretary of State, and he was on the "slate" for President. He won the prize, but it was a victory which left him without the support of any party. His great life-work was wrought in the House of Representatives from 1830 to 1848, where his advocacy of freedom won him the appellation of "The Old Man Eloquent." He was stricken down by paralysis in his seat in Congress and died two days thereafter.

Andrew Jackson was a native of North Carolina, of Scotch-Irish descent, born March 15, 1767, and died in Tennessee June 8, 1845. Jackson was the first President chosen from the humblest ranks in life. His father was a poor farm-laborer, and his education was sadly neglected. A lawyer by profession, his life was mainly spent in war and politics. In both he was a brilliant success. No man ever exerted a deeper and more enduring influence upon the politics of this country than he. As Jefferson was the father of the first Republican party, so Jackson was of the Democracy. He was rough, quarrelsome, headstrong and outspoken. His election to the presidency was the triumph of the common people, and formed an era in politics. To him belongs the bad pre-eminence of having inaugurated the policy of parceling out the offices as the reward of political service. He fought several duels, but finally died in the odor of Presbyterianism.

Martin Van Buren, a representative of the Dutch of New York, was born December 5, 1782, and died July 24, 1862. He was a politician of the most partisan character and a remarkable adept in the arts of politics. He began the study of law at the age of fourteen and entered the legislature of his state in 1812. In 1821 he was elected to the United States Senate. He served later as Governor of New York, Secretary of State under Jackson, and during the second term of the latter he was Vice-President. The favor of Jackson and his own adroitness made him President. He did not abandon the hope of a second term when beaten by Harrison in 1840, and was the choice of a majority of the delegates to the National Convention of 1844, but failing to secure a two-thirds majority, he was defeated. That closed his public career, except the inglorious episode of

1848. In retirement he wrote a history of political parties in the United States.

William Henry Harrison was a citizen of Ohio when elected to the presidency, but a native of Virginia. He was born February 9, 1773, and died April 4, 1841. He was the first President to die in office. His father was Governor Benjamin Harrison, and his grandson of the same name is now a senator from Indiana. He entered the army in 1791 and was stationed at Fort Washington, now Cincinnati. He was secretary of the Northwest Territory, a delegate to Congress, and later governor of Indiana. He was in the Ohio State Senate; both houses of Congress; minister to Colombia, South America, and a county clerk during the twelve years immediately preceding his election to the presidency. His success at the Indian battle of Tippecanoe really made him President. Harrison was charged by the Democrats with living in a log cabin and drinking hard cider. His political friends turned the accusation into an element of enthusiastic popularity.

John Tyler was born in Virginia March 29, 1790, and died in Richmond January 17, 1862. He was educated at William and Mary's College and early entered public life. His career was such as to make him singularly unpopular. He was a member of the United States Senate when South Carolina passed the nullification act, and approved its passage. He was an intense anti-Jackson man, and that endeared him to the Whigs, who nominated him for Vice-President because he had resigned his seat in the Senate rather than obey the behests of the Democratic legislature of Virginia. He was not in accord, throughout, with any party, and he went out of office the most unpopular man who ever filled that position, not excepting the other vice-presidential Presidents of a later date. His last appearance in public was as President of the Peace Convention of 1861. He aspired to the presidency in 1844, but found himself a candidate without a party or a following.

James K. Polk, like the two other Presidents of the United States furnished by Tennessee, Jackson and Johnson, was a native of North Carolina. He was born November 2, 1795, and died June 19, 1849. He was educated at the University of Nashville. His Congressional life began in 1824. He served as Speaker of the House two terms, and governor of his state one term. Polk was a staunch supporter of Jackson and all his measures. Like Abraham Lincoln, he had aspired to the vice-presidency four years before his election to the presidency. He was not a candidate for re-election in 1848. The issue on which he was elected, the annexation of Texas, was settled by Tyler before he came into the presidency, but the Mexican war which followed was the natural sequence of that annexation. Polk was a Presbyterian in religion, and his life was consistent with his professions.

Zachary Taylor was born in Virginia September 24, 1784. His family residence when elected to the presidency was in Louisiana. He died in the Executive Mansion, Washington, July 9, 1850. General Taylor remained upon his father's plantation until 1808, when he was appointed an officer in the regular army, and he remained in the service until his elevation to the presidency on the strength of his record in Mexico. He was a slaveholder, but not in sympathy with the prevailing Southern eagerness for more slave territory. Some suspicion of foul play and poison lingers about his death which was attributed to an attack of bilious fever. He was father-in-law to Jefferson Davis and father of General Richard Taylor of the Confederate army.

Millard Fillmore, who came to the presidency in consequence of the death of General Taylor, was a native of New York, born January 7, 1800, and died at Buffalo March 8, 1874. His early education was meager, but being of a studious disposition, he became a well-informed man. He was a lawyer by profession. Fillmore entered Congress as a Whig in 1833, and gradually rose in influence until he became chairman of the committee of Ways and Means in 1842. He was the Whig candidate for governor of New York in 1844, but was defeated. When nominated and elected for the vice-presidency he was comptroller of the state. He aspired to the presidency by election, but the Whig party may be said to have died upon his hands. His last years were spent in the practice of law in Buffalo. He was an elegant gentleman and an honest man.

Franklin Pierce was a native of New Hampshire. He was born November 23, 1804, and died October 8, 1869. His father, Benjamin Pierce, had been governor of the state. Bowdoin College was his alma mater, where Nathaniel Hawthorne was his classmate. They became and remained warm friends. Pierce was in the lower house of Congress

from 1833 to 1837, and in the Senate from 1837 to 1842. Polk offered him a seat in his cabinet, but he preferred to accept a brigadier-generalship in the army during the war with Mexico. He did not distinguish himself, but acquired availability, as it proved, for the presidency to which he was elected in 1852. He was always strongly Southern in his sympathies. After his retirement from the presidency he lived quietly at Concord, New Hampshire. He made a feeble effort to secure a re-nomination in 1856.

James Buchanan was a native of Pennsylvania and never changed his residence. He was born April 23, 1791, and died June 1, 1868. He was educated at Dickinson College. He began his long political career as a Federalist, but rallied around the standard of General Jackson. In 1828 he was elected to Congress. Three years later he was appointed minister to Russia. Two years later he was elected to the United States Senate and served creditably in that body twelve years. In 1853 he was appointed minister to England. It was while he was holding that position that he was nominated for the presidency. His election in 1856 was the last national triumph of the Democracy. In 1866 he published in self-defense a volume entitled, "Mr. Buchanan's Administration." As an attempt at vindication it was a failure.

Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky February 19, 1809, and died at the hand of the assassin, J. Wilkes Booth, April 15, 1865. Like Jackson and his immediate successor, Johnson, he sprang from the very humblest rank. His education was almost wholly self-procured. His early life was spent upon a pioneer farm. He was elected to the legislature of Illinois in 1834 and studied law. He removed to Springfield and gradually rose to considerable eminence in his profession and as an effective political speaker. In 1846 he was elected to Congress as a Whig and served one term. When the Republican party was organized he was its recognized leader in Illinois. He received 110 votes as candidate for the vice-presidency in 1856. In 1858 he canvassed Illinois in a joint debate with Douglas, acquitting himself so grandly that his nomination for and election to the presidency was his reward. From that time to his tragic death the life of Lincoln was historical rather than biographical.

Andrew Johnson was born December 29, 1808, and died July 31, 1875. A tailor by trade, he was taught to read and write by his wife. His first office was that of alderman. He drifted into politics naturally, being always very popular with the industrial class. He entered Congress in 1843 as a Democrat, where he remained until chosen governor of Tennessee in 1853. In 1857 he was elected to the Senate. When secession came he was a staunch supporter of the Union, and that gave him a popularity at the North which secured him the vice-presidential nomination in 1864, and ultimately the presidency. His presidential term was one long struggle against the party which elected him. He made two unsuccessful attempts to get back into the United States Senate, and finally, in 1875, his wish was gratified, but he died before taking his seat.

Ulysses S. Grant was born in Ohio, April 27, 1822. His father was a sagacious business man, and the son was educated at West Point. He took part in the Mexican war and served for a time upon the frontier. In 1854 he resigned his position in the army and devoted himself to business. His career from 1861 to 1877 forms a conspicuous part of American history. In the spring of 1877 he started on a trip around the world, and was everywhere received with distinguished honors. He returned to America in the fall of 1879. He became a prominent but unsuccessful candidate for the Republican nomination for the presidency in 1880. General Grant now resides in New York City.

Rutherford B. Hayes was born in Ohio. He was educated at Kenyon College and adopted the profession of law, entering upon its practice in Cincinnati. When the civil war came he entered the service and was a very creditable but not very conspicuous Brigadier-General. After the war he served one term in Congress and was elected to the governorship of his state, which office he occupied at the time of his election to the presidency. Since the expiration of his term of office, March 4, 1881, he has lived in retirement at his home in Fremont, Ohio.

James A. Garfield was born in Ohio November 19, 1831, and died at the hand of the assassin Guiteau September 19, 1881. Young as he was, his public life had been long and eventful. He graduated at Williams' College in 1856 and adopted teaching as a profession. In 1859 he was elected to the State Senate of Ohio. He studied law and prepared to enter the legal profession. When the war came he entered

the military service. He rose to the rank of Major-General. In 1862 he was elected to Congress. He remained in that body until elected to the presidency in 1880. In the previous winter he had been chosen United States Senator for the term beginning March 4, 1881. His election was the triumph of genius and goodness over calumny, and he entered upon the office of chief magistrate with every prospect of a great future.

Chester A. Arthur, the third Vice-President to reach the presidency, was born in Vermont. He is a graduate of Union College. Choosing the law as his profession, he made New York City his home. His first public effort was the defense of a fugitive slave, and he acquitted himself with great credit. During the gubernatorial term of Governor Morgan he was Adjutant-General of the state of New York, rendering important service during the first year and a half of the war in that capacity. Late in the second term of President Grant, General Arthur was appointed Collector of the port of New York. He was removed by President Hayes, but not upon any charge of malfeasance. His removal was due to a difference of opinion upon the political features of the civil service. He was a member of the National Republican Convention of 1880, in which body he supported General Grant for a third term.

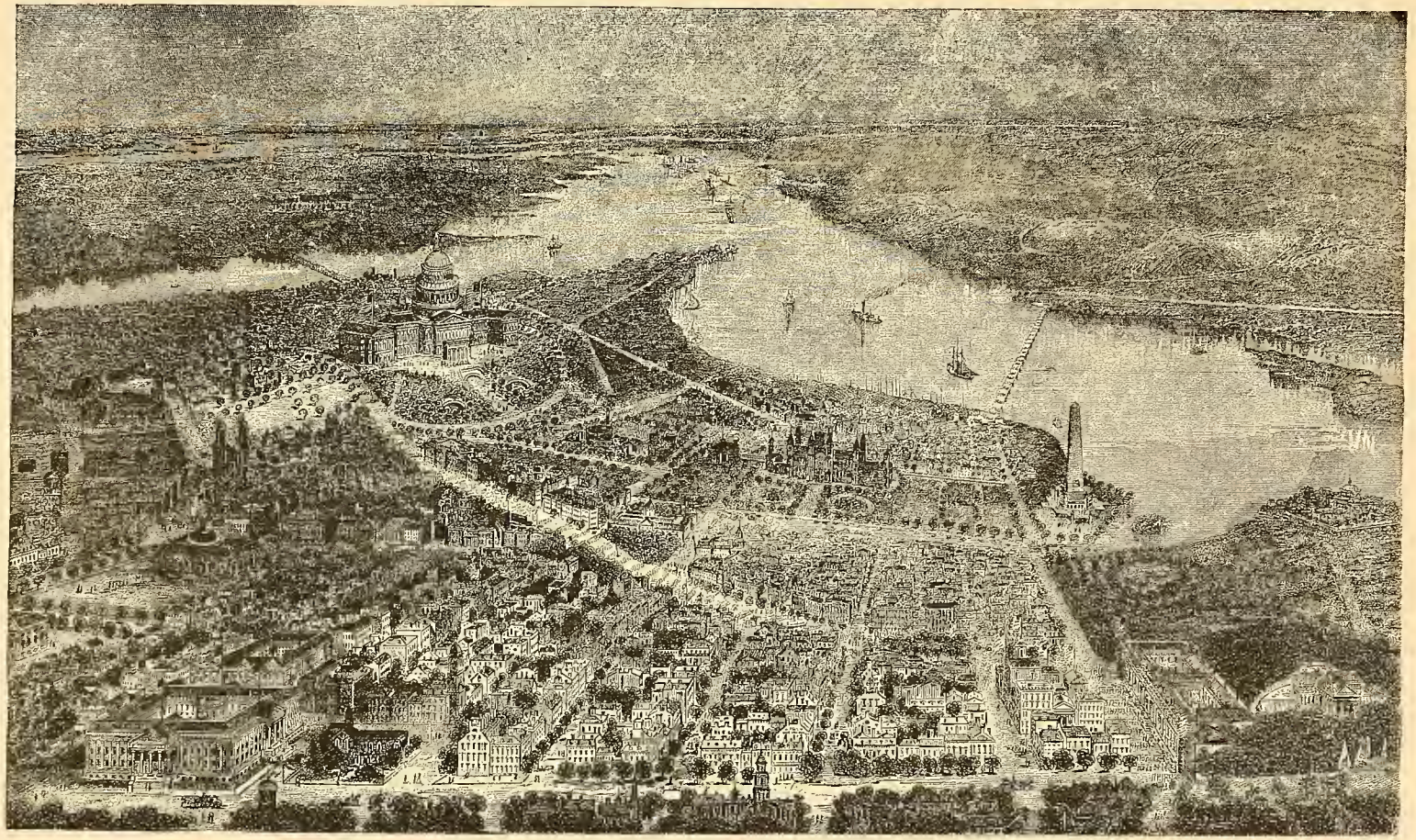
Having finished what may be called a key to the presidential group introductory to this chapter, we turn to the elections which have been held. The United States has had twenty-one Presidents and twenty-four presidential elections.

During the Revolutionary War this country was without an executive head in distinction from a legislative body, the Continental Congress exercising all the political functions of a national nature. The President of that body was its presiding officer and nothing more.

The first presidential election occurred the first Wednesday in January, 1789. It was held by order of the Continental Congress. The electors were chosen that day in accordance with the Constitution which had been duly ratified during the previous summer, taking the place of the Articles of Confederation. On the Wednesday next following, the electors met, those of each state by themselves, in their respective state capitols, to vote for President and Vice-President. So perfectly harmonious and well understood was the whole matter that the elections of George Washington to the presidency and John Adams to the vice-presidency were unanimous. The same law of the Continental Congress which provided for the presidential election also provided that a new Congress should be elected when the electors were chosen, and that body is known as the First Congress. It was further provided that both Congress and the President should enter upon their official duties the first Wednesday in the following March (which fell upon the fourth day of the month) in the city of New York. Washington and Adams were on hand in time, but it was April 30 before a quorum of Congress convened and the new executive actually came into power. North Carolina and Rhode Island had not ratified the constitution and took no part in the first election of a President. The second presidential election was also unanimous, the President and Vice-President being re-elected without opposition. Fifteen states took part in it, Vermont and Kentucky, as well as the original thirteen.

Washington refused a third term. The candidates balloted for, with their electoral votes, were these: John Adams, Massachusetts, 71; Thomas Jefferson, Virginia, 69; Thomas Pinckney, South Carolina, 59; Aaron Burr, New York, 38. As the constitution then stood, the second choice of the people for President became Vice-President. Tennessee was added to the list of states by that time, 1796, and the existence of two well-defined political parties was manifest. Washington was not a partisan, but leaned toward Federalism, or a strong central government. John Adams, Pinckney and Alexander Hamilton were the leaders of the Federalists; Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr were the leaders of the Republicans, or State-rights party.

In 1804 the same candidates were in the field as in 1796, and the election resulted, Jefferson and Burr 73 votes each, Adams 64 and Pinckney 63. There was thus a tie and a tangle which threatened very serious consequences. The election was thrown into the House. After balloting seven days that body chose Jefferson President and Burr Vice-President. Before another election was held, the constitution was so amended that the electors have since voted directly for presidents and vice-presidents. With that defeat Adams and his party went out of power forever. It continued to exist and vainly strive for the ascendancy until after the war of 1812, when, with the election of Monroe, it ceased to exist.



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF WASHINGTON, D. C.

The fifth election brought another member of the Pinckney family, Charles C., to the front as the candidate of the Federalists, with Rufus King of New York as candidate for Vice-President. The duel between Burr and Hamilton, resulting in the latter's death, had made the name of Burr second in odium only to Arnold, and in his place New York furnished, as second to Jefferson, George Clinton. It may be remarked that if Virginia is the Mother of Presidents, New York is of Vice-Presidents. Jefferson and Clinton received 162 votes; their opponents only 14. Ohio had been admitted to the Union in 1802.

Following the example of Washington, Jefferson retired to private life at the close of his second term. James Madison of Virginia came to the front as the leader of the Republican forces, with Clinton still second. Pinckney and King were again the candidates of the Federalists. They received 47 each, to 123 for Madison and 113 for Clinton.

Four years later Madison was re-elected, but George Clinton had died in office, and Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts took his place as Vice-President. The Federal candidates were DeWitt Clinton (nephew of George) of New York and Jared Ingersoll of Pennsylvania. By that time Louisiana had been admitted to the Union. The Republican candidates received 128 electoral votes each, Clinton 89 and Ingersoll 57. The second war with England was fought during that seventh administration.

The election in 1816 stood, James Monroe of Virginia for President and Daniel D. Tompkins of New York for Vice-President, 183 votes each; and Rufus King of New York and John E. Howard of Maryland, 34 votes each. Indiana took part in that election. The Federalists who had carried the second presidential election, and struggled vainly for the mastery in the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth, now at last gave up the contest, accepting the inevitable.

The condition of the country was one of measureless content. Monroe and Tompkins were re-elected in 1820 without opposition. Four new states had been added to the Union, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Mississippi. The Republicans had been in power twenty-four years, and selected the President all the time from Virginia.

Before 1824 the contest over Missouri had been waged, resulting in the compromise which was in reality the first battle of the war between the states. In that, the tenth election, there were four candidates for President, none of them representing a party. The persistence of the Federalists in holding together had been, as it proved, the cohesive power of Republicanism. The four candidates in 1824, and their respective votes, were as follows: Andrew Jackson, 99; John Quincy Adams, 84; Wm. H. Crawford, 41; Henry Clay, 31. The number necessary to a choice was 131, consequently the election of a President devolved upon the House. The result was the selection of Adams for the presidency. John C. Calhoun of South Carolina had received 182 electoral votes for the vice-presidency. Adams and Clay combined their forces against the hero of the battle of New Orleans. Being a great statesman but no politician, Adams failed to rally to his support a party organization, and the time came for another presidential election. Hitherto no national conventions had been held. The candidates for President and Vice-President had always been selected by congressional caucuses. The year 1824 saw the last of "King Caucus" as presidential dictator.

The eleventh election, 1828, was a clear-cut, bitter and exciting contest between President Adams and Richard Rust of Pennsylvania on one side and Jackson and Calhoun on the other. It was culture and the Northeast against uncouth vigor and the South and West. The result was that out of 261 electoral votes Jackson received 178, Calhoun 171, and Adams and Rush 83 each. Jackson was not particularly skilled in the arts of the politician, but he was the material out of which to construct an ideal leader in those times, and served as the nucleus of a new party, the Democracy. This organization really dates from Jackson's accession to power. During that first term of Jackson the abortive nullification movement in South Carolina occurred. It was countenanced by Calhoun and crushed by Jackson, and thus was the former rendered unavailable as a national candidate for any office, while the latter was immensely strengthened by it.

In 1832 Jackson was re-elected, receiving 219 out of 288 electoral votes. With him was elected to the vice-presidency Martin Van Buren of New York. There were several opposing candidates, Clay, William Wirt and John Floyd, but "Old Hickory," as his friends delighted to call him, was invincible.

In 1836 Van Buren was the candidate of the Democratic party, with Richard M. Johnson of Kentucky on the ticket with him for Vice-President. The opposition was still fragmentary. William H. Harrison of Ohio, Daniel Webster of Massachusetts, W. P. Mangum of North Carolina, and Hugh L. White of Tennessee, were all in the field, but Van Buren received 170 out of 294 electoral votes. Johnson was elected Vice-President by the Senate, no choice for that office having been made by the electors.

The importance of political organization was now so well established that in 1840 the opposition, which had gradually come to be known as Whigs, held a national convention. In the meanwhile the panic and hard times of 1837 had occurred. Van Buren and Johnson were the nominees of the Democracy. The Whigs chose as their candidates General Harrison and John Tyler of Virginia. The campaign was very exciting. It resulted in a brilliant Whig victory. Out of 294 votes cast, Harrison and Tyler received 224. Harrison died almost immediately, and April 6 John Tyler became acting President. That was the first time in the history of the country that the Angel of Death elected the President.

In 1844 the Democrats nominated James K. Polk of Tennessee, and George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania, as their standard-bearers; the Whigs selected Henry Clay and Theodore Frelinghuysen of New Jersey. Out of 275 votes cast, Polk and Dallas received 170. The Abolitionists had by this time become something of a power in the North, just enough to draw from the Whigs sufficient votes to give the victory to the Democracy.

Before the next or sixteenth election, the Mexican war had been fought and gold discovered in California. The Whigs chose as their presidential candidate General Zachary Taylor, nominally of Louisiana, but really a soldier with no civil life. He had never voted in his life. On the ticket with him was Millard Fillmore of New York. The Democratic candidates were Lewis Cass of Michigan and Wm. O. Butler of Kentucky. "Old Rough and Ready" was the popular name for Taylor, and he swept the country, aided by the fact that Martin Van Buren, out of hatred for Cass, ran as Free-soil candidate, drawing off votes enough to give Taylor the state of New York. The vote stood: Taylor and Fillmore, 163; Cass and Butler, 127.

The seventeenth presidential election (1852) found both parties eagerly disavowing anti-slavery sentiments and vying in subserviency to the South. The Democratic candidates were Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire and William R. King of Alabama. The Whig candidates were General Winfield Scott, of military renown, and William A. Graham of North Carolina. The disparity in the popular vote was not very great, but in the electoral vote the Democratic ticket stood 254, the Whig 42. There were, by that time, 31 states, the latest being California.

In 1856 the slavery question became more prominent than ever, owing to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. The Whig party died with the defeat of Scott. The modern Republican party came into existence, as a national organization, June 17, 1856, at Philadelphia, at which time John C. Fremont of California, and William M. Dayton of New Jersey, were nominated for President and Vice-President. Fifteen days before, the Democrats had put in the field James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, and John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky. The "Know-Nothing," or American, party had a ticket in the field, headed by ex-President Fillmore. The latter had 8 electoral votes; Fremont, 114; Buchanan, 174. Fillmore's votes came from Maryland, Fremont's from the North, he being the first candidate of any prominence to furnish the occasion of sharply defined sectionalism.

In 1860 there were four candidates, if we include the insignificant candidacy of Bell and Everett (American party). The Democrats were divided in their support between Stephen A. Douglas and John C. Breckenridge. The Republicans put in the field Abraham Lincoln of Illinois, and Hannibal Hamlin of Maine. The contest was fierce and close. The popular vote of the two wings of the Democracy were several hundred thousand in excess of the Republican vote, but being divided, the result was that Lincoln had 180 votes; Douglas, 12; Breckenridge, 72 and Bell 39. Douglas had substantially the same popular vote as Breckenridge and Bell combined.

The twentieth election occurred during the civil war, and was the triumph of the war party at the North. The Republicans re-nominated Abraham Lincoln, and placed Andrew Johnson of Tennessee upon the ticket with him. The Democrats ran

General George B. McClellan on his military record with George H. Pendleton of Ohio second upon the ticket. The vote stood, Lincoln, 212; McClellan, 21. In little over a month after his second inauguration Mr. Lincoln was assassinated, and Andrew Johnson came to the presidency in his place. Johnson became so very unpopular that he was finally impeached, and only by one vote escaped conviction. Had he been convicted, B. F. Wade of Ohio would have filled out the balance of the second Lincoln term.

In 1868 occurred the twenty-first national election. The candidates were Ulysses S. Grant of Illinois and Schuyler Colfax of Indiana, on the Republican side; Horatio Seymour of New York and Frank P. Blair of Missouri, on the Democratic side. Three states, Virginia, Texas, and Mississippi, had not been restored to the Union, and took no part in the election. Grant received 214 votes; Seymour, 80. Grant's popular majority was about half a million.

By 1872 a great deal of disaffection had developed within the Republican party, owing to long continuance in power. This discontent found expression in the assembling of the National Liberal Convention in Cincinnati which nominated Horace Greeley of New York for the presidency, and B. Gratz Brown of Missouri for the vice-presidency. The Democrats in their national convention put the same ticket in the field. The Republicans re-nominated General Grant, putting Henry Wilson of Massachusetts upon the ticket with him. The Republicans carried 286 electoral votes, the opposition only 47. Mr. Greeley died between the popular election and the meeting of the electoral colleges. Vice-President Wilson died during his term of office. The Liberal movement was abandoned and the Democracy returned to its trenches and general line of battle.

The centennial, or twenty-third, presidential campaign was peculiar in the fact that it was continued almost to the very day of inauguration. The Republican candidates were Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio, and William A. Wheeler of New York; the Democratic candidates were Samuel J. Tilden of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana, all, except Wheeler, being governors of their respective states. No other candidates received any electoral votes. It was conceded that Tilden had 184 votes out of a total of 369. The votes of South Carolina, Florida and Louisiana, especially the latter, were stoutly claimed by both parties. Finally, it became necessary for the conservative element in both parties to agree upon a plan of arbitration. A bill was passed which created an Electoral Commission to decide the matter in dispute. The result was that Hayes received 185 votes and was duly declared elected.

The last election held was the twenty-fourth, in 1880. James A. Garfield and Chester A. Arthur were the nominees of the Republican party; General Winfield S. Hancock, of the regular army, and William H. English of Indiana, were the nominees of the Democracy. The vote stood, Garfield, 214; Hancock, 155, and the validity of the election was not questioned.

THE STATES AND TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER LXXXVI.

THE SCOPE OF THIS CHAPTER—THE STATES AND TERRITORIES IN THEIR ALPHABETICAL ORDER—THE ORIGINAL THIRTEEN STATES, FROM THE DATE OF THEIR EMERGENCE FROM COLONIES INTO INDEPENDENT COMMONWEALTHS—PRODUCTIONS, RESOURCES AND OTHER FEATURES OF EACH STATE, AND TERRITORY, ACTUAL AND PROSPECTIVE.

THE United States consists of thirty-eight states, eight territories and two districts, the latter being Alaska and the District of Columbia. It is proposed in this connection to give the more important and interesting facts, historical and actual, about each state and territory, taking them up in their alphabetical order, omitting such information as may be found either in preceding chapters or in subsequent statistical tables. In giving longitudes and latitudes it will be unnecessary to add "north" to one and "west from Greenwich" to the other, this being understood as a matter of course. The seal of each state will be given. The states are older than the United States. There is no limit fixed to the number of states which may be admitted by Congress. No provision is made for dividing a state, except in the case of Texas, which, it is contemplated, may eventually be several states; but any instance occurring of an attempt of that kind could be decided upon its merits.

ALABAMA.

Alabama was the twenty-fifth state, in the order of its admission to the Union. The name is Creek (Indian) for "Here we rest." It is situated between latitudes 30° 15′ and 35, and longitudes 84° 56′ and 88° 48′. It is 336 miles long and from 148 to 200 miles wide. The soil is easily tilled and quite productive. Its principal rivers are, the Tennessee, the Mobile, Tombigbee, Alabama, Coosa, Black Warrior, Perdido and Chattahoochee. The northern portion of the state is somewhat mountainous, and the farther south you go the lower is the average level. It is a great cotton-growing state. It has one good seaport, and only one, Mobile. The bay of that name is about 30 miles long and from three to four miles wide. The main manufacturing industry carried on there has iron for its base; but some cotton cloth is made. For a long time it raised more cotton than any other state in the Union. With the exception of Mobile, the state can

hardly be said to have a city, and its prosperity is almost wholly industrial rather than commercial.

In 1819 the territory of Alabama was organized, and two years later the state, having a population of 127,901, was admitted into the Union. It was at Montgomery, the capital of Alabama, that the Southern Confederacy was organized. It remained the Confederate capital until the July following, about six months. Several battles were fought within the borders of that state during the civil war, the naval action in Mobile Bay, August, 1864, being the chief. The land engagements were comparatively trivial. After the close of the war, June, 1865, President Johnson appointed a provisional governor. The state rescinded the ordinance of secession in September following and sought readmission to representation in Congress. It was not reconstructed until 1868. It was Republican in politics for several years, but with nearly all political disabilities removed, it reverted to the Democracy. It suffered less probably from the ravages of war than any other Confederate state.

ALASKA.

Alaska was known as Russian-America until the United States purchased it from Russia in 1867. The price paid was $7,200,000. Wm. H. Seward was Secretary of State at that time, and was very eager for the acquisition. Some very absurd reports were widely circulated representing the country to have some agricultural value. It may possibly have some valuable mines, but the soil is frostbound and sterile. It extends north as far as the Arctic Ocean, between latitudes 54° 40′ and 71° 23′. Behring Strait separates it from Asia. Its only intrinsic value lies in its seal fisheries. From these the government derives some revenue and the world some furs. The peninsula, sometimes known as Sitka, is about 350 miles long and 25 miles wide on an average. It is a strip of land between British Columbia and the main body of Alaska, having Mt. Saint Elias on the north. New Archangel, the capital of Alaska, if capital it may be said to have, is on an island which virtually forms a part of this peninsula. The United States does not maintain a regular territorial government there. The population consists mostly of Esquimaux. It forms a collection district for the protection of the government interest in the seals. Alaska has a volcano of grand proportions, Mount Saint Elias. It has others of less altitude. St. Elias is about 18,000 feet in height.

ARKANSAS.

Arkansas was organized as a territory in 1819. It had once formed a part of Louisiana. Its first settlement was by the French in 1670, at or near the point where the St. Francis River empties into the Mississippi. In 1812, when Louisiana became a state, Arkansas was made a part of Missouri. It had a long territorial existence, not having been admitted to the Union until 1836. Its growth was slow until 1850, when Southern planters began to go there in large numbers, attracted by its rich soil and adaptability to cotton raising. It was in full sympathy with secession and passed the ordinance, taking itself out of the Union on the very day that Lincoln was inaugurated. As early as January, 1864, steps were taken in the direction of restoration to the Union, but it was not until the summer of 1868 that Congress passed the bill for its restoration to representation, and it was not until 1874 that the state had rest from reconstruction.

Arkansas has several kinds of mineral wealth. Its zinc ore is said to be equal to that of Silesia. Copper, manganese, iron and coal are abundant, especially the latter. The most remarkable feature of the state is its cluster of hot springs, widely famed for healing properties. Rheumatism yields more readily to those waters than to drugs. Hot Springs, the town, is about 60 miles southwest of Little Rock, the capital. The state is admirably adapted to grazing. Its hay crop is important. Its area of arable land is very large. It is a fine country for fruit. The navigable waters of the state exceed 3,000 miles in length. Its principal rivers are the Arkansas, the St. Francis, the White and the Ouachita (pronounced Washitaw). In the order of its admission Arkansas is the twenty-fifth state in the Union. The climate is fine. The mean temperature for the year is about 62°, and except in the malarial marshes the state is remarkably healthful.

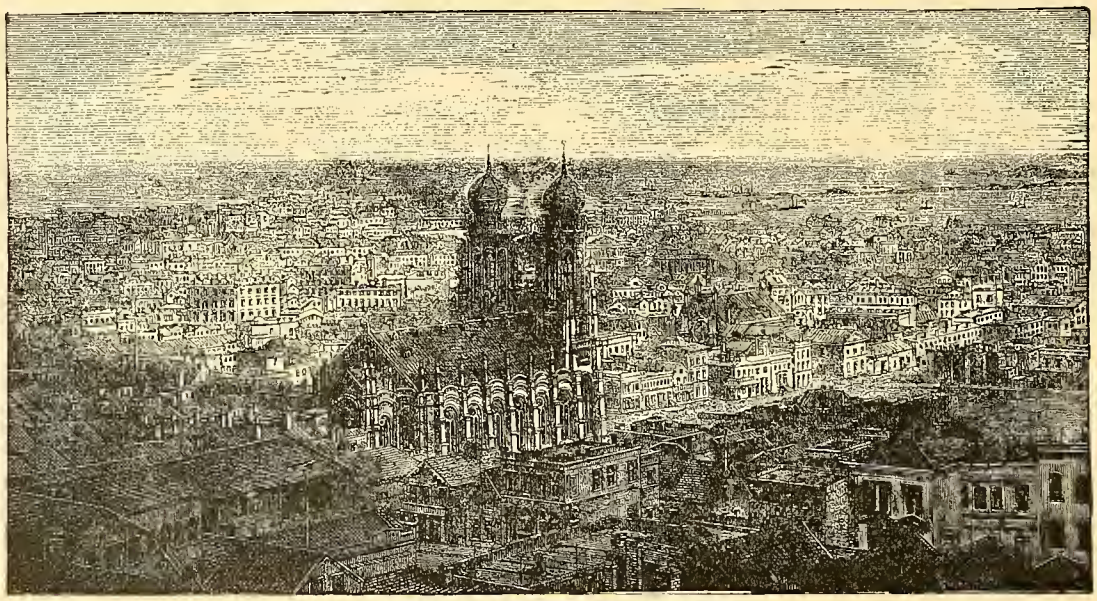
ARIZONA.

Arizona Territory was organized from New Mexico early in 1863. Tucson is the capital. That city is the center of quite an important mining region. This territory is at once old and new, having a comparatively remote past, and yet in its actual development and attitude toward civilization it is almost entirely prospective rather than retrospective. It is highly probable that New Spain, as established by Cortez, took in, definitely, the most of Arizona. Certain it is that there were Jesuit missionaries and other Spaniards in that vicinity, as permanent settlers, as early as 1600. Imposing and interesting ruins attest the zeal of those propagandists of the faith. There are many mines there which were worked two hundred years ago, and abandoned from the lack of machinery requisite to deep mining. There is not much tillage, nor hardly any possible, except by irrigation. Other minerals besides gold and silver are found there in great abundance. High mountains and deep cañons prevail. It has immense tracts of good grazing land which are largely occupied by vast herds of cattle.

The flourishing mining town of Tombstone, so named on account of the natural aspect of the immediate country, is in this territory. That portion of the mineral belt is largely peopled, and developed by enterprise from the Pacific Slope.

CALIFORNIA.

California may be called the reward of demerit. The United States waged a war with Mexico which had in it no redeeming feature. It was a strong nation, taking mean advantage of a weak neighbor in a cause which was bad in itself. But the result was an acquisition of incalculably greater value to the country than any one could have anticipated. California was the chief, but by no means the sole, territorial acquisition of the United States from Mexico.



VIEW OF SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

As early as the sixteenth century, that great English navigator, Sir Francis Drake, coasted along the Pacific Slope. In 1578 he landed in California and took possession in the name of the British sovereign, calling the land New Albion. But the English never attempted to establish their claim. The bay of San Francisco was discovered in 1769. A Jesuit mission was founded there in 1776. For fifty years quite extensive missions were maintained in that vicinity by the Franciscan monks. When Mexico became

independent the missions declined, and in 1845 the government confiscated the Franciscan property. When the country fell into the hands of the United States it was almost a virgin wilderness, for practical purposes. Except that some tracts of land are held under old Mexican titles, California hardly has a vital trace of Spanish occupancy. It can hardly be said to have had a territorial existence at all. There were military governors, martial law, lynch law and no law at all in those early days, but hardly had the tide set in when California found itself with a population amply entitling it to admission into the Union. It was admitted in 1850.

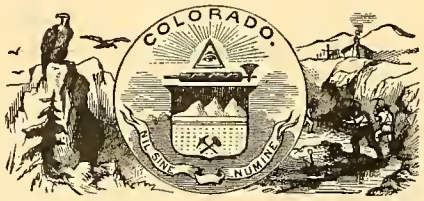
THE YOSEMITE VALLEY.

California is 700 miles long, and has an average width of 200 miles. Beside its gold, it is a very rich state agriculturally. The corn and wheat, the wool and fruit, the wine and cattle, yield more real wealth than the mines, many times over. Southern California is especially favorable to grape and orange raising. The climate is delightful. The gold product of the state during the first quarter-century of its development was $990,600,000. The most prolific year was 1853, $65,000,000.

San Francisco is, and always has been, the chief city of California. There are, however, several other cities of very considerable importance, Sacramento, the capital, Stockton, Los Angeles, Oakland, San Diego, Marysville and Santa Cruz. The great misfortune of the state is that its great properties are largely held by a few monopolists who spend their money elsewhere. Another misfortune is the class of menial laborers, the Chinese. From the standpoint of economy, Mongolian labor is beneficent, but the very general opinion of the people is that the state would have been better off if no Asiatic had ever crossed the Pacific.

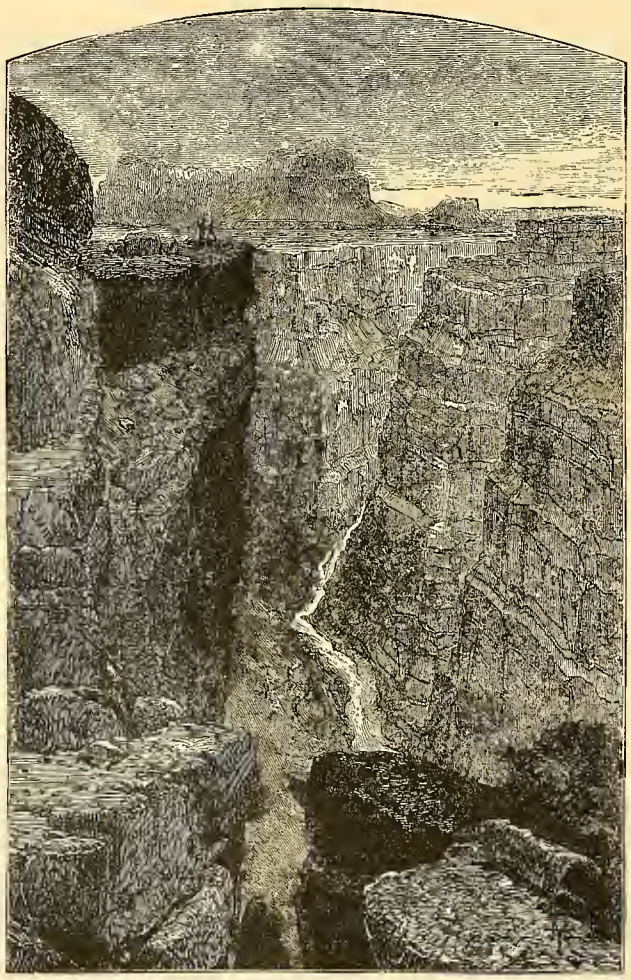
California has many natural curiosities. The Yosemite Valley is the most remarkable valley in the world for grandeur. Lake Tahoe is a marvel of purity and transparency. Nowhere else does the pine reach such stupendous proportions. There are several groves in which may be found many trees

over 100 feet in circumference. The most notable wild beast of that region is the bear—grizzly, brown and black.



COLORADO.

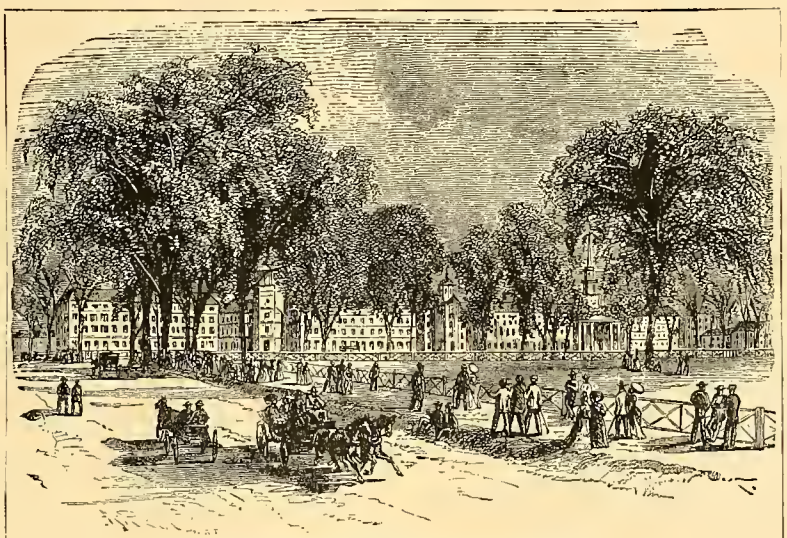
Colorado receives its name from the Rio Colorado river and its Grand Cañon between longtitudes 112° and 115°, where the river flows for three hundred miles between perpendicular walls of rock, sometimes 6,000 feet high, forming one of the greatest natural curiosities. The state itself, the thirty-eighth member of the Union, lies between latitudes 37° and 41° and longitudes 102° and 109°. Like Arizona, it is one mighty treasure-house of gold and silver, with no adaptation to agriculture, except as the land is irrigated. The valleys and plateaus yield nutritive grass sparcely, but abundantly for the encouragement of grazing as an industry. The state has these two industries — mining and herding—which furnish its exports. It is comparatively easy to irrigate the land and secure bountiful harvests, but the state is too far from the seaboard to raise grain for the general market. Besides, the home prices are high, making the profits of agriculture satisfactory. The discovery of gold in paying quantities was made in 1858, and the next year the reports of rich mines of free gold near Pike's Peak created a perfect furor. Thousands of people rushed thither, expecting to find a second California. A great deal of suffering ensued and disappointment. Still the report had a substantial basis. By 1861, when the territory was formed, the population was 35,000. It was admitted as a state in 1876. Denver is the capital and chief city. Colorado is a great resort for invalids, especially those affected with pulmonary diseases and throat troubles. Leadville sprang up about the time the territory became a state. It was born of a new-mining discovery of very great richness. It is farther south and higher than Denver. The air is rarified and light. The area of mineral development is steadily enlarging, and the business now rests upon a legitimate basis. The Gunnison country and the San Juan country are terms used to designate distinct and important mineral regions in the southern portion of the state. In its yield of gold and silver, Colorado is the leading state in the union. It has three colleges, all small, but fraught with happy omen for the future of the state. The mere mining camp of territorial days is fast giving place to villages and cities filled with families.



THE GRAND CANON OF THE COLORADO.

CONNECTICUT.

Connecticut is the first of the old thirteen colonies to come before us in this connection. It had won some renown as a colony, by its preservation of its royal charter and the strictness of its religious observances. In the Revolutionary War its most illustrious soldier was General Israel Putnam. He was born in 1718, and was rather old for the service when the war began, but he entered upon it with great enthusiasm. Roger Sherman was the most conspicuous representative of that colony in the Continental Congress. Governor Jonathan Trumbull was a trusted counselor and devoted friend of General Washington, who was accustomed to address him as "Uncle Jonathan," since then the typical name for the American people.



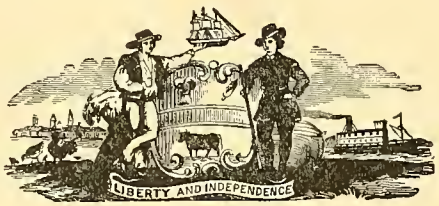
YALE COLLEGE, NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT.

The war of 1812 found Connecticut largely engaged in commerce, much more so than it is at the present time. That war was a great calamity to its commerce, and although the state did its part fully in the way of supplying men and means, the policy of peace-at-any-price had a great many ardent advocates there. A convention was held at Hartford for the purpose of denouncing the war just before the news of the battle of New Orleans was received, which became historic from its unpopularity, as soon as the good news came. The especial pride of Connecticut is Yale College, one of the truly great universities of the world. It was founded as early as 1701. It is located at New Haven. Originally a college only in the restricted sense of the term, it is now an institution fully equipped for all higher educational purpose. There are other colleges of some importance in the state, but they are not to be compared to Yale.

Insurance, fire and life, is a very prominent feature of Connecticut business. In no other state is there so much surplus capital devoted to underwriting. New Haven and Hartford are the chief cities of the state, and insurance their chief business. There are, however, a great many branches of manufacturing carried on extensively in the state. It is the native soil of "Yankee notions." Besides raising the farm products common to the northern part of the country, it raises large quantities of excellent tobacco. The lower valley of the Connecticut River is admirably adapted to this plant. The state had two capitals, New Haven and Hartford, for a long time, but now Hartford alone has that honor. Connecticut laid claim under its colonial charter to a tract of land nearly 60 miles wide and extending to the Pacific Ocean. After the Revolution that claim was quieted and disposed of by granting to the state the fee simple as property (but not the political control) of a large tract of land in the vicinity of Lake Erie. It was called "The Western Reserve." Most of it is now in the State of Ohio. The proceeds of that land form the basis of the public school fund of Connecticut. It it due to the good name of this state to add that its reputation for exceptional austerity is unjust, resting upon a literary fraud perpetrated by a clergyman named Peters, who published a bogus volume of "Blue Laws."

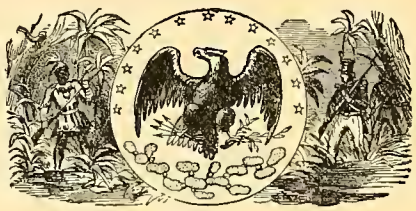
DAKOTA TERRITORY.

Dakota Territory is the most populous of all the territories, and the largest in area. It was organized in 1861. The census of 1880 showed a population of over 130,000, and later enumerations and estimates place the population in 1882 at 150,000. The cities of Yankton and Sioux Falls, the largest in the territory, have each a population of 3,500. The number of the cattle has increased, it is estimated, 800 per cent during the last two years. The yield of gold bullion for 1881 was $4,500,000; of silver, $2,000,000, taken from the famous Black Hills mines. The territory is also rich in copper, lead, mica, coal and gypsum. But wheat is the supreme source of wealth in Dakota. It may be called a continuation, in this regard, of Minnesota. The population is largely made up of Swedes and Norwegians, with a very considerable population drawn from the native population of the North. It is expected that the territory will be divided, and the southern portion admitted into the Union as the State of Dakota, and the northern portion organized as a separate territory.



DELAWARE.

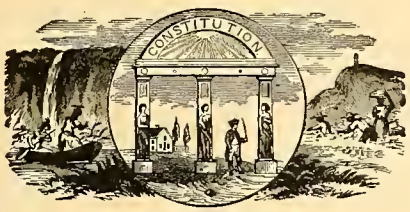
From the great Territory of Dakota to the little State of Delaware there is a long stride. This least important of all the states is one of the original thirteen. It was being governed as a part of Pennsylvania at the time the war for independence was declared, but promptly demanded recognition as a "sovereign" state. Pennsylvania consented, and the "three lower countries on the Delaware" became an independent political unity. In the war then in progress for national freedom the citizens of Delaware won distinction for bravery, and on account of the peculiar flag of the state were known as "The Blue Hen's Chickens." When the war was over and in the progress of political events there was a tie vote between Jefferson and Burr, it was Delaware (a strongly Federal state) which decided the matter, its leading senator, James A. Bayard, preferring Jefferson as the less of two evils. The present Senator Bayard is a grandson of the elector of Jefferson. The senatorship seems to be an heirloom in that family. James A. Bayard, Jr., was for many years a senator. When it is added that Delaware is famous for its peaches and its garden products, including berries, the entire record of interest is disclosed. It is singularly lacking in enterprise. The people do not push westward nor establish skilled industries to any considerable extent. Dover, the capital, is a sleepy inland village, and Wilmington, its chief seaport, has only a very small commerce. The state is divided into three counties, Kent, New Castle and Sussex. Before the war there were a few slaves there. A majority of the people were friendly to the Union. Delaware furnished 10,000 volunteers to the Union army.



FLORIDA.

The chief interest of Florida belongs to its colonial history. Apart from that, it presents very few points of attraction. It was ceded to the United States by Spain in 1821. The first census taken was in 1830, and at that time the population was only 34,730. By the census of 1860 the population was 140,424, about one-half of the number being slaves. The first territorial governor was General Jackson. He acquired much of his popularity, especially in the South, by his successful warfare upon the bloodthirsty Seminole Indians, who were finally eradicated from the territory, with a few exceptions, and transplanted in Indian Territory. Those still remaining are peaceable. Florida was admitted as a state in in 1845. It seceded in January, 1861, and was readmitted in June, 1868. The peninsula portion is nearly 400 miles long. The soil is very largely either sandy or swampy. Its rivers and lakes are many and well supplied with a great variety of fishes and reptiles. The forests abound in timber which would be of great value if it could be marketed. The chief attraction of Florida, and its great source of wealth, is its vast extent of orange orchards. It also

produces rice and a fine quality of tobacco. It is a favorite resort in winter for invalids and others from the North. Jacksonville is the largest city. Tallahassee is the capital. Key West, on the island of the same name, is strongly fortified, and is a United States naval station. St. Augustine, the oldest city in the United States, was founded by the Spanish freebooter Menendez. in 1565.



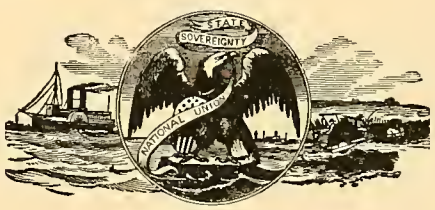
GEORGIA.

Georgia is well called the Empire State of the South. It was one of the original thirteen states. Its colonial history is indeed brief, but it is, as has been seen, exceptionally creditable. Its extent north and south is 320 miles, and its extreme breadth east andwest 254 miles. From its colonial birth to the present time it has been exceptionally prosperous. It did suffer, and that severely, it is true, from British soldiers during the Revolution, and from Northern soldiers, especially those under General Sherman, in the late war between the states, but it has shown great recuperative powers. It combines in its soil and climate the advantages of the North and South, producing with equal prodigality cereals and cotton. It is also rich in iron, which is being mined on a large and profitable scale.

Georgia has several flourishing cities. Savannah was long the chief town in the state. Atlanta is now the most flourishing. It is the capital. It has been called, and with reason, the Chicago of the South. Augusta, Milledgeville, Macon, Columbus and Athens are among its more important centers of population and capital. It has several fairly good institutions of learning.

IDAHO TERRITORY.

Idaho Territory is the least thrifty of all the territories of the United States. It has Wyoming and Montana on the east; British Columbia on the north; Washington Territory and Oregon on the west, and Nevada and Utah on the south. Gold was first found there in any considerable quantities in 1860. The next year there was quite a large influx of miners from both the East and the West. The placer-diggings, or free gold, yielded richly. The territory was organized in 1863 and re-organized in 1864. In a few years the rich gold-bearing sand had been washed and the population fell off. The difficulty of reaching the quartz mines with adequate machinery has delayed the development of those resources. The country is well adapted to grazing, and vast herds of cattle and flocks of sheep roam over the plains and valleys of the territory. It lies between the 42° and the 49° of latitudes, laying mainly in the basin of the Upper Columbia River. The climate is delightful, and eventually Idaho will be a prosperous state.



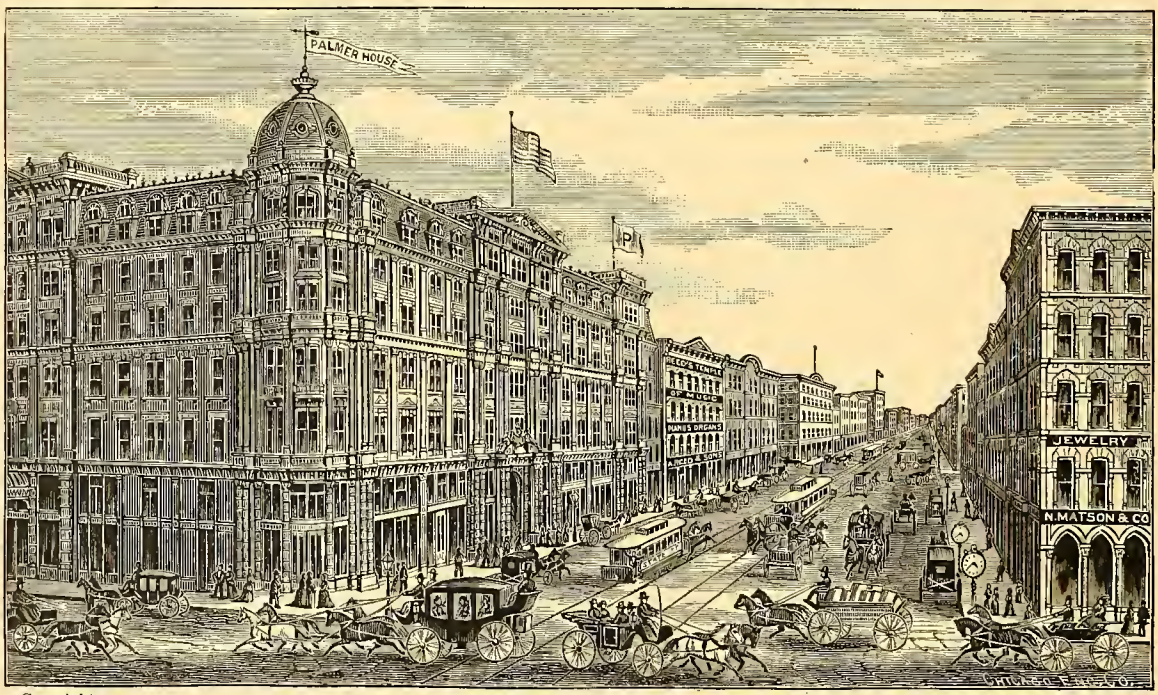
ILLINOIS.

The first white settlement in Illinois dates back to the seventeenth century. The first settlement in distinction from Jesuit missions, was made by the French at Kaskaskia in 1700. But in the present development of Illinois the French can hardly be said to have taken an appreciable part. It requires the skill and patience of the antiquary to discover even the faintest trace of the first settlers. The territory of Illinois was organized in 1809, when a territory of that name was cut off from Indiana. The southern part of the state was settled first, the course of pioneer enterprise being along rivers, especially down the Ohio and up the Mississippi. Then, too, the Indians of the north were particularly troublesome. A military post was early established at the mouth of the Chicago River on the site of the present city of that name. It was called Fort Dearborn. In 1812 the fort was taken by the Indians and the whites cruelly massacred. This massacre led to the expulsion of the Indians from the vicinity, and prepared the way for the permanent settlement of the northern portion of the territory.

Illinois was admitted into the Union in 1818. The population at that time was 35,220. Nearly all of it is level and arable. It is the "Prairie State,"

most emphatically. The soil is rich and easily tilled. The coal area is estimated at 45,000 square miles. This inexhaustable supply of fuel is bituminous. Illinois can boast more miles of railroad than any other state in the Union, and the coal-fields have had much to do with the development of this interest. Illinois has several large cities, the chief being Chicago, with a population of over 500,000, according to the census of 1880. It is the commercial capital of the West, or Interior, more properly speaking. It became a city in 1837. Early in the evening of October 8, 1871, a fire broke out in the southwestern part of the city, and raged with increasing and ungovernable fury that night and the next day, sweeping over 2,124 square acres, including the heart of the city, and leaving only shapeless ruins in its track. It is more particularly referred to in the chapter on The Present United States.

Springfield is the capital. It is a thrifty inland city, ranking next to Quincy on the Mississippi River, and Peoria on the Illinois River, in size. The latter has long been famous for its highwines, being in the very heart of the corn belt. Cairo became somewhat famous during the war. The state has more occasion to be proud of its men than its cities. Stephen A. Douglas was the first Illinoisan to reach eminence, and Abraham Lincoln, General Grant and Robert G. Ingersoll followed, each in his way the foremost man of the nation—one as statesman, one as soldier, and one as orator. The state adopted in 1870 a new constitution containing many radical changes, and which proved to be a landmark in the constitutional history of the country, many states, since then, having adopted its more important features, the chief being the restriction of the power of municipalities to incur debts, and of railways to make unjust transportation charges. It was a test case from Illinois which secured from the supreme court of the United States a decision to the effect that a railway is a highway, and that railroad companies are subject to all the limitations, as to uniformity of charges, of other common carriers.



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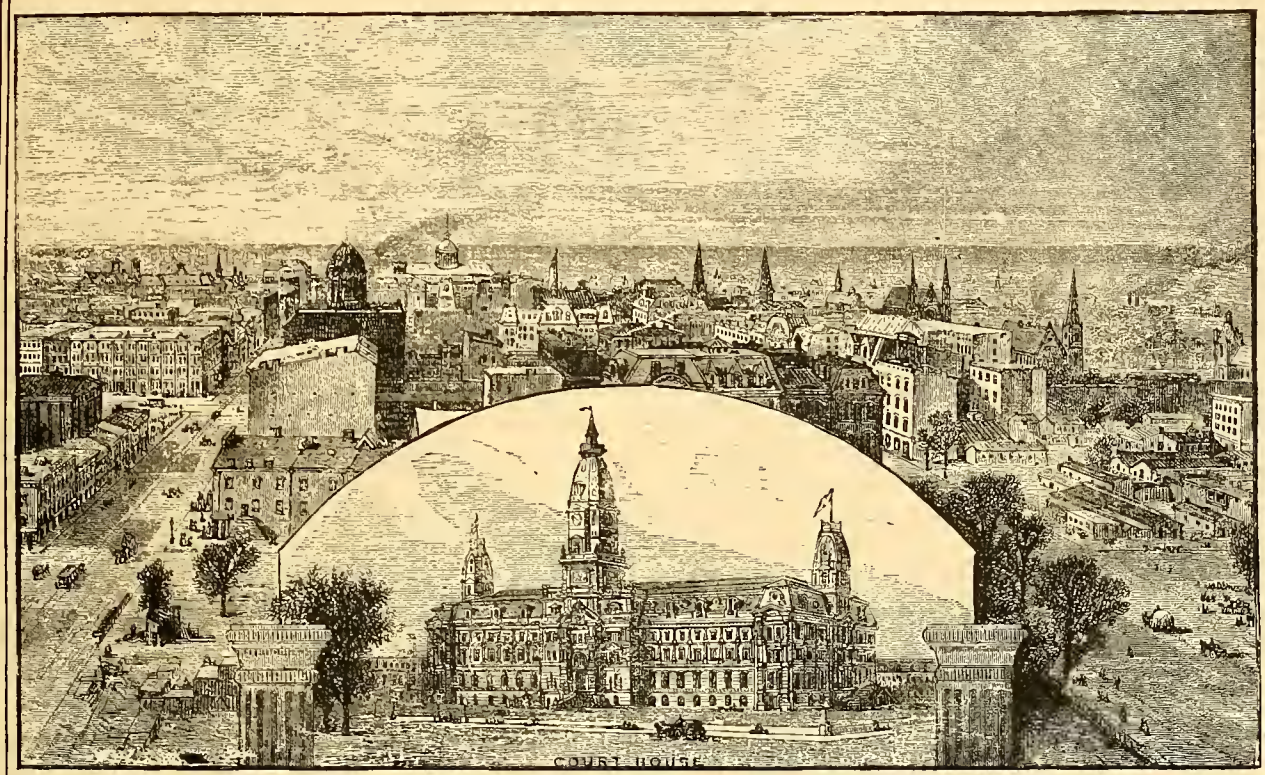
Illinois contains about three hundred rivers and creeks, not counting the mere streams. Drouths are almost unknown, of late years, in nearly the entire state. It is the foremost commonwealth in the Union in the production of corn, wheat, rye and oats, also in the number of its horses, the manufacture of highwines and agricultural machinery and utensils.

INDIANA.

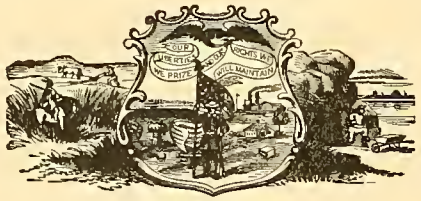
Indiana is surrounded by Illinois, Kentucky, Ohio and Michigan. Like all the prairie states, it has no mountains nor any under-ground wealth except coal. It has a greater variety of valuable lumber than Illinois. It was admitted into the Union in 1816. A French settlement had been effected at Vincennes as early as 1702, which flourished and withered away, much as the Kaskaskia settlement did. Early in the third decade of this century an era of wild speculation was inaugurated in Indiana, culminating in the crash of 1837. No other state in the Union was so deeply affected by that revulsion. Railroads and canals, especially the latter, were projected and under process of construction on a grand and irrational scale. The state was greatly depressed by the reaction, and cannot be said to have recovered from it until the prosperity of the war period brought relief. The capital, Indianapolis, is the principal city in the state, and second only to Chicago as a Western railway center. Evansville, Terre Haute, Fort Wayne, South Bend, New Albany, Jeffersonville and Vincennes are all prosperous towns. The state furnished the third Republican Vice-President, Schuyler Colfax, and, in the person of Senator Morton, the greatest parliamentary leader in the senate since the days of Douglas.



INDIANAPOLIS FROM THE COURT HOUSE.

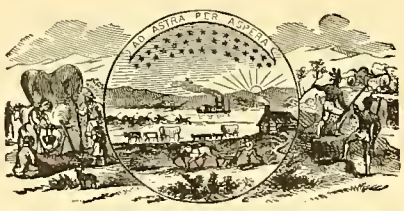
INDIAN TERRITORY.

Indian Territory is not a territory at all, in the ordinary sense of the term. It is not dependent upon the national government, but is a nation within a nation. It has been considered in a previous chapter in connection with the American Indians, and it is enough to add in this connection that it dates from 1832, and is one of the best portions of the continent for grazing and grain-raising.



IOWA.

Iowa lies between the two great rivers, the Mississippi and the Missouri, with Minnesota on the north and Missouri on the south, extending north and south about 200 miles, and east and west, 300 miles. There is hardly a foot of waste land within its border. Its agricultural capacity is almost incalculable. It has no important river or lake. Its cities are comparatively small, Chicago being the great center for the entire state. The capital, Des Moines, is a thrifty inland city, and so is Iowa City. Several river towns of some importance are found along the Mississippi, Dubuque, Muscatine, Davenport, Burlington and Keokuk, also Sioux City on the Missouri. Iowa was created a territory in 1838, and admitted into the Union as a state in 1846. Its growth has been uninterrupted and prodigious, but almost exclusively agricultural. It has very little timber, a great deal of coal, and some lead in the vicinity of Dubuque, as Illinois has across the Mississippi near Galena. It also has some gypsum, and is beginning to manifest manufacturing enterprise to a very considerable degree.



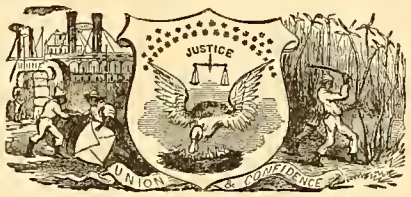
KANSAS.

Kansas is a striking example of the advantages of advertising. The politics of the country, as has been seen, served to make the public familiar with the name and interested in the settlement of Kansas. This territory and Nebraska were organized in 1854. Almost immediately the North and South started on a race for the ascendancy in Kansas. It was not long before there were people enough to justify its admission as a state. A majority came from the North and were utterly opposed to slavery, and repeatedly framed and adopted constitutions prohibitory of it. The Southern influence in Congress prevented its admission. A constitution framed by a minority convention held in Lecompton in 1857 protected slavery. It received only 2,000 votes. Mr. Douglas favored the admission of Kansas as a free state, that being the practical outcome of his favorite doctrine of "squatter sovereignty," and that position made him obnoxious to a large party of the Democracy, and caused the schism in favor of Breckenridge for the Presidency in 1860. It was in January, 1861, that Kansas was admitted. In the period from 1824 to 1861 the territory had amply earned the title of "Bleeding Kansas." During the four years of war it was the scene of much bloodshed and destruction. Lawrence was twice burned, and several other towns partially destroyed by border ruffians, or guerillas. After the war the influx of population was without parallel in pioneer history, and that notwithstanding drouth and grasshoppers conspired to discourage immigration. The soil is rich, and the people prosperous. Topeka is the capital, and the chief city of the state. Leavenworth and Lawrence have not fulfilled the promise of their infancy. Across the state line in Missouri is the commercial capital of the state, Kansas City, which is almost wholly indebted to the State of Kansas for its great prosperity. At the present time Kansas has the most stringent prohibitory liquor law of any state in the Union. The coal field of the state is supposed to have an area of over 22,000 square miles. It is the most central state of the Union, having Missouri on the east, Indian Territory on the south, Colorado on the west and Nebraska on the north. It has no lakes of any magnitude nor any considerable rivers. Its railway system is extensive, secured at the cost of enormous municipal indebtedness. The principal institution of learning is the University of Kansas, at Lawrence, but the chief educational facilities afforded are an admirable system of public schools for elementary instruction. The western portion of the state has suffered much from drouth, but every year is adding to the volume of rainfall, and gradually the "desert," as it was once supposed to be, is being brought into subjugation to the plow. Herding is carried on upon a large scale, both cattle and sheep. The state has a great variety of vegetation, not less than twelve hundred species of plants being indigenous to its soil.

KENTUCKY.

Kentucky traces its origin to Daniel Boone, a famous hunter who established himself at what is now Boonesboro' in 1769. It was then a part of Virginia, and so remained until 1790, when it was created into a separate territory. For fourteen years it had been the County of Kentucky. In 1792 it was admitted as a state, having a population of 75,000. It was the "out west" of Virginia for many years. It formed for a long time the extreme southwest of the United States, boundaries between French and Spanish America and the United States being vague. It was supposed that Aaron Burr contemplated seizing the region in dispute and erecting there a Southwest Empire. That was the "treason" for which Burr and Blennerhasset were tried. The evidence of guilt was strong but insufficient for conviction. Kentucky suffered seriously from hostile Indians in the early day, and the people have always been noted for their martial spirit. From 1861 to 1865 it furnished, as has been aptly said, its quota for both armies. Politically it was a stronghold of the Whig party during the period of that organization. Since then it has been overwhelmingly Democratic. It is noted for the chivalry of its men, the beauty of its women, the excellence and abundance of its whisky and horses. It has only one city of any considerable magnitude—Louisville.

Frankfort is the capital. The eastern portion of the state is mountainous, the western a rich tableland. The soil is adapted to grain and tobacco. Its famous blue-grass is the finest of pasturage. There is some iron and a great deal of coal in Kentucky. Of its mineral wealth, mostly undeveloped as yet, Professor Shaler says: "The coal resources of Kentucky are only exceeded by those of Pennsylvania, and the quantity of iron ore is probably not exceeded by any American state." The state contains twelve colleges and universities, none of which are heavily endowed. The chief of these is Kentucky University, located at Lexington.



LOUISIANA.

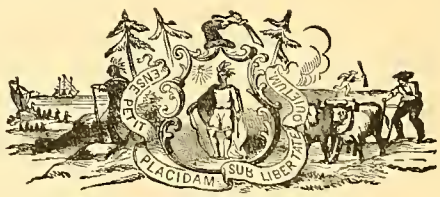
Louisiana originally included not only the present state of that name, but Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Dakota, Nebraska, the greater part of Kansas, Indian Territory, a small part of Colorado, all of Montana, Oregon and Idaho, and the greater part of Wyoming. That vast region was first penetrated by European adventure in 1541, when De Soto, a Spaniard, discovered the Mississippi River. The first actual settlement was made by the French in 1699. For over a century it was, in effect, a part of New France. In 1803, the United States, through President Jefferson, bought that imperial area of Napoleon Bonaparte, while he was First Consul of France, for $15,000,000, including what are known as "French Spoliation Claims." The next year the southern portion was organized as the Territory of Orleans. Original Louisiana did not include, however, that portion of the state between the Mississippi, Amite and Pearl Rivers. That was ceded to the United States in 1810 by Spain in exchange for undisputed title to Florida. In 1812 Orleans was admitted to the Union as a state under the name of Louisiana. The local customs and state laws have never ceased to bear the marks of France, and the Code Napoleon may almost be said to form the common law of the commonwealth. The state seceded in December, 1860, but the ordinance was adopted by the close vote of 117 to 113. Louisiana was restored to the Union in the summer of 1868. The great staple of Louisiana is sugar. Cotton is also raised to good advantage. About one-fifth of the state is beneath the high-water level of the Mississippi River, and has to be protected from inundation by levees, maintained at great cost by the state government. There are about 1,500 miles of levees within its border. It would require an annual expenditure upon them of $1,000,000 to afford thorough protection. New Orleans, with a population of over 200,000, is the one city of any magnitude in the state. It is also the political capital.

MAINE.

Before and during the Revolutionary War the northern boundary of Massachusetts was uncertain. By the treaty of peace with England it was fixed so as to include the State of Maine, long known as "the District of Maine." From the first Maine demanded independence, but it remained a "district" until 1820. During that period a great deal of ill feeling existed between Massachusetts proper and Maine. The treaty of 1783 had not, as it proved, settled the boundary question with precision, and it remained an occasion of diplomatic controversy until 1842, when, by the terms of the Ashburton treaty, the St. Johns and St. Francis Rivers were agreed upon as the northern and northeastern boundaries between the Province of Quebec and the State of Maine. The state is largely covered with pine-trees, and most of the soil is almost worthless for cultivation. A very considerable revenue is derived from granite quarries on the seaboard. There are a good many Canadian French in the State, and a colony of Scandinavians occupy a tract by themselves. The Indian population has not wholly disappeared. The woods still abound in game, and many of the streams are still well-stocked with fish. Portland, the chief city, is an important seaport. Augusta, the capital, is little more than a village. The state has reason to be proud of one great statesman to whom it gave birth, Pitt Fessenden, and a still greater, who is a native of Pennsylvania, but for many years a citizen of Maine, James G. Blaine, the fourth great parliamentary leader the United States has produced, Clay, Douglas and Thaddeus Stevens being the other members of the quartet. It gave birth and education to America's laureate, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. Bowdoin College, from which he graduated, was founded in 1794, and has long ranked among the more illustrious higher institutions of learning in the country. It is in the forests of Maine that the moose must be sought. That state became famous in 1851 for its stringent prohibitory liquor law, to which it has tenaciously held ever since.

MARYLAND.

The early history of Maryland belongs to the colonial period. The boundary line between that colony and Pennsylvania, run in 1750 by the two commissioners, Mason and Dixon, settled a long and troublesome dispute. The term "Mason and Dixon's line" came afterwards to be used to designate the boundary between the free and slave territory throughout the United States. In the war for independence the "Maryland line" bore conspicuous and effective part. In the late war the state would doubtless have cast in its lot with the South had not its chief city, Baltimore, been placed under military supervision. Many of its sons joined the Confederate army. The great battle of Antietam was fought on the soil of Maryland. Slavery was abolished by constitutional law in 1864. Baltimore is a very important seaport, not only for this state, but for the South and West. The Baltimore & Ohio railroad, one of the great trunk lines of the country, has that city for its eastern terminus. A little more than one-half the state is under cultivation, grain and tobacco being the chief productions. Bituminous coal is found in the northwestern portion of the state, and in small quantities gold and silver. The climate is delightfully mild. The oysters of the Chesapeake Bay form an important source of revenue. Annapolis is the capital.



MASSACHUSETTS.

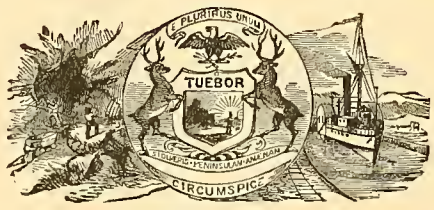
Of all the states in the Union none has had greater prominence in American history than Massachusetts. The early American chapters were largely occupied with its establishment and growth. From its first settlement to date its importance has been maintained. Beginning this record with the emer-

gence of the state from its colonial dependence we find that its first governor was John Hancock, elected in 1780. From 1775 to 1780 the executive department of the state was in the hands of The Council.

That small yet great commonwealth has several important rivers, the Connecticut, Merrimack, Housatonic and Hoosic being the chief. Along its streams of sufficient magnitude to form water-power, mills of almost every conceivable kind are found, the manufacturing interest being largely in excess of the agricultural. Its great achievement in engineering is the Hoosic Tunnel, begun in 1855, completed in 1874, at a cost of $9,000,000. But the proudest achievements of the state have been in the line of political and intellectual superiority. In the cause of human rights and mental improvement it has always been foremost. Its list of statesmen, from Winthrop to Sumner, is long, and of its authors and inventors is still longer and more creditable. Boston has indeed been eclipsed by New York in commerce and wealth, but in the higher ranges of activity there has been no falling back. Among the other cities of the state may be named Worcester, Lowell, Cambridge, Lawrence, Lynn, Springfield and Fall River. Harvard College dates back to 1636; Williams College to 1793; Amherst to 1827; Andover Theological Seminary to 1808, and Tuft's College to 1852. It has a highly creditable list of institutions for special education, such as schools for deaf mutes, the blind, idiots and young criminals.

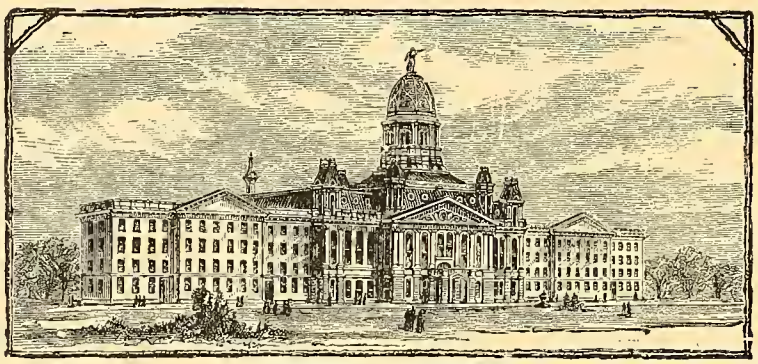
THE CITY AND HARBOR OF BOSTON.

This home of the Puritans is gradually becoming the home of the foreigner. The bleak and rocky farms of Massachusetts are being deserted by the Yankees, and going into the hands of Irishmen and Canadians to an almost revolutionary extent. There are a few of the original Indians left in the state—not far from two thousand, including the mulattoes with whom they have intermarried. "Shay's Rebellion" was a Massachusetts episode. It occurred in 1806. It was a popular uprising against the "boss system" in state politics.

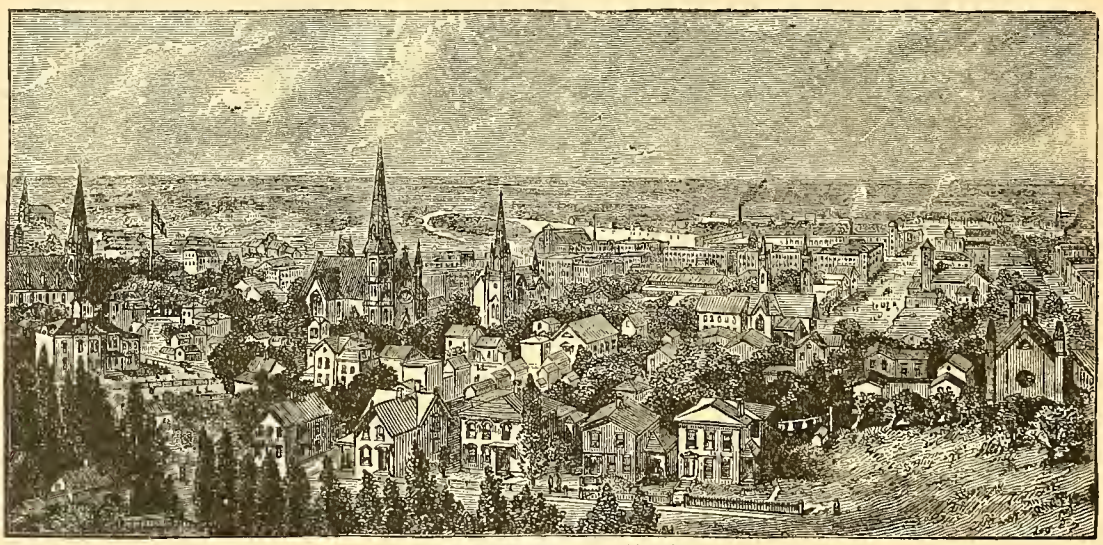


MICHIGAN.

The name of Michigan was derived from the Indian words meaning Lake Region. The first settlement was a Jesuit mission at the falls of the St. Mary, 1641. Detroit was founded by the French in 1701. The silver and copper mines were discovered and worked as early as 1772. Michigan was regarded as a part of Canada during the Revolutionary War. Its *status* after peace had been declared was uncertain until 1796, when England ceded it to the United States, and it formed a part of the Northwest Territory from that time until 1800, when it was included in Indiana. Michigan Territory was organized in 1805, and General Hull appointed first governor. He held that position and was also military commander when, early in the war of 1812, the British demanded the surrender of Detroit, to which he yielded, for which he was severely censured, and from which the city was rescued by the victory of Lake Erie (Commodore Perry), in 1813. General Lewis Cass was soon after appointed governor of the territory. Michigan was admitted into the Union in 1837. Lake Michigan and the Straits of Mackinaw divide the state into two peninsulas, the lower and the upper. The latter comprises about one-third of the state, and is rich in copper, lead, iron and timber; the former is devoted to agriculture. Michigan is not a prairie state. It was made arable by the same hard process as the Eastern States. Forests had to be felled and roots of trees grubbed out. The farms are usually small and carefully tilled. The farmers raise a great variety of products, and in the aggregate realize handsome returns for their industry. Lansing is the capital, and Detroit and Grand Rapids are its chief cities. The State University, at Ann Arbor,

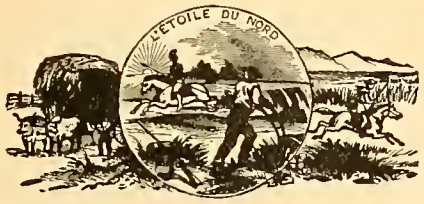


UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.



VIEW OF GRAND RAPIDS.

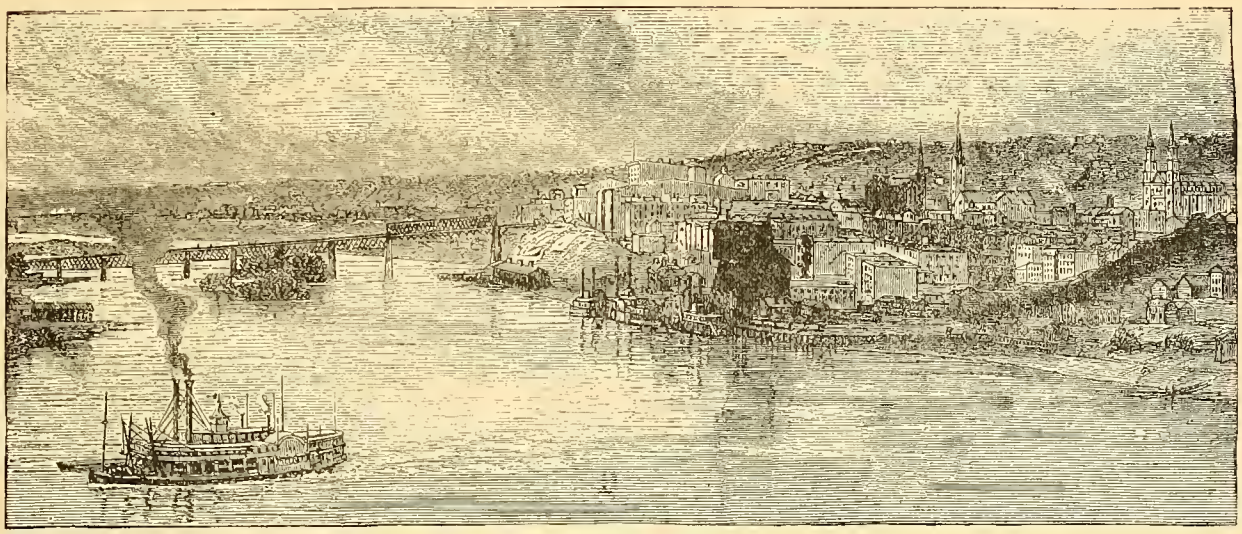
ranks with Yale, Harvard, and Cornell, as a really great seat of learning. It has several flourishing denominational colleges also. It has furnished one poet of very considerable reputation, Will M. Carleton.



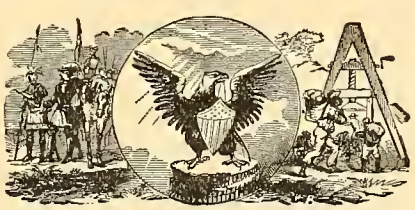
MINNESOTA.

Minnesota is very largely peopled by Scandinavians, and in view of its great staple might well have been called Wheatland. Its name was borrowed from that of one of the rivers which drain the southwest portion of it. Minnesota has a navigable water-line of about 15,000 miles. It abounds in beautiful lakes. The state has a length from north to south of 380 miles, and a width of 337 miles, extending from Iowa to Canada one way, and from the Mississippi to the Missouri the other. The Falls of St. Anthony, to which Minneapolis with its flouring mills and saw mills is indebted for its growth, were discovered by Hennepin, a French Jesuit, in 1680. A fur-trading post was established there, but the traders gradually lapsed into the surrounding barbarism. The first steamboat ascended the Mississippi as far as the Falls of St. Anthony in 1823. A Swiss settlement was effected near there a short time after. The territory was organized by Congress in 1849, with Alexander Ramsey, who was Secretary of War under President Hayes, as first governor. It was admitted to the Union as a state in 1858.

In 1862 occurred the horrible Sioux massacre, in which not less than 1,000 whites, mostly women and children, were killed. The Sioux were removed from the state, and no trouble has since been experienced from the aborigines. There are many friendly Chippewas still in Minnesota. St. Paul and Minneapolis, only a few miles apart, are both large and rapidly growing cities, the former being more commercial, and the latter more devoted to manufactures. Duluth has great expectations. St. Paul is the capital.



VIEW OF ST. PAUL.

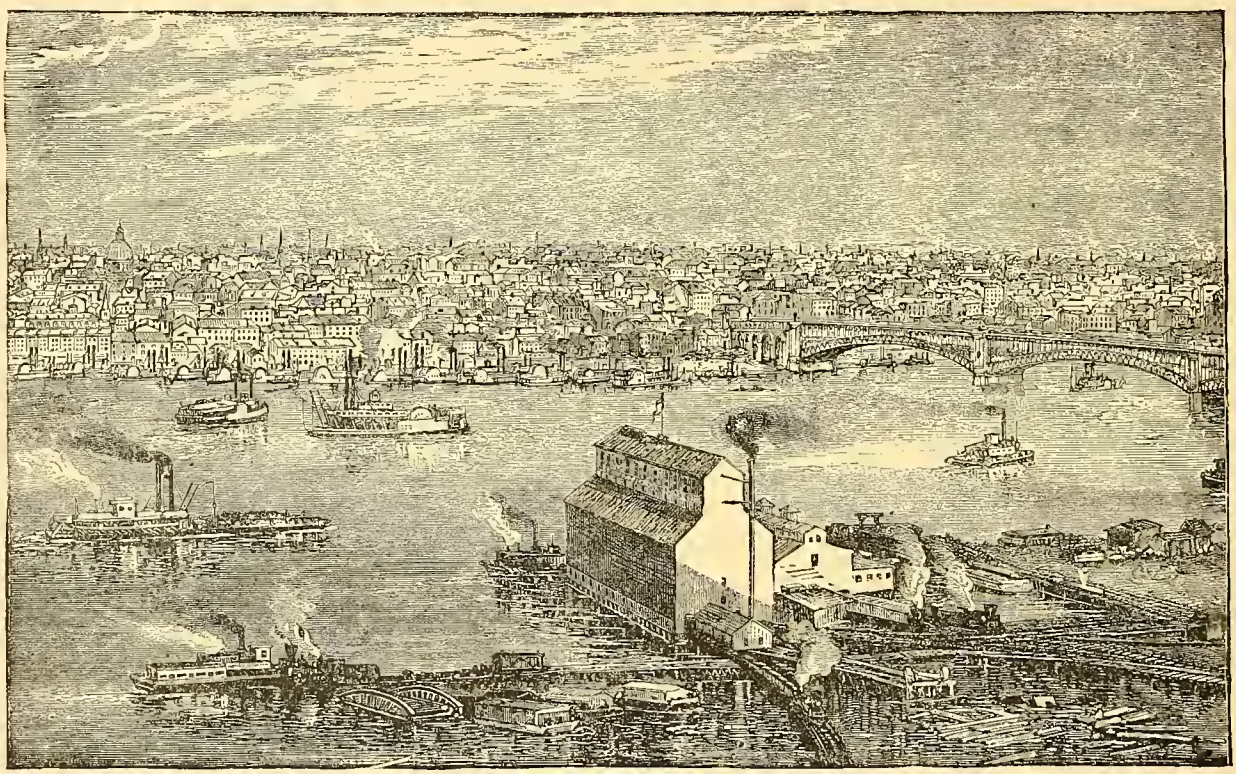


MISSISSIPPI.

That part of Mississippi now known as the Great Yazoo Bottoms was visited by De Soto in 1539. He is supposed to have remained there about a year. That region is still largely undeveloped. A territory bearing the name of Mississippi was organized in

1798, but it was by no means the present state bearing that name. Its boundaries were fixed as now in 1817, when it was admitted as a state. It was one of the first states to secede, and did not regain state rights until 1870. Nearly all of its area is capable of cultivation, but only a small part is actually improved. It is densely wooded. Cotton is the great staple. The state is well adapted to general farm products, including livestock. Jackson is the capital and Vicksburg the chief city. It has produced only one man of great note, Jefferson Davis, the first and only President of the Southern Confederacy.

south, stretches the great State of Missouri. Its chief city, St. Louis, grew out of a fur-trading post, and as early as 1775 had acquired considerable prominence. After the Louisiana purchase and the organization of the Territory of Orleans the unorganized portion of the purchased possession was known as the District of Louisiana, and in 1805 as the Territory of Louisiana, with St. Louis as its capital. The name was changed to Missouri in 1812. It applied for admission to the Union as early as 1817.

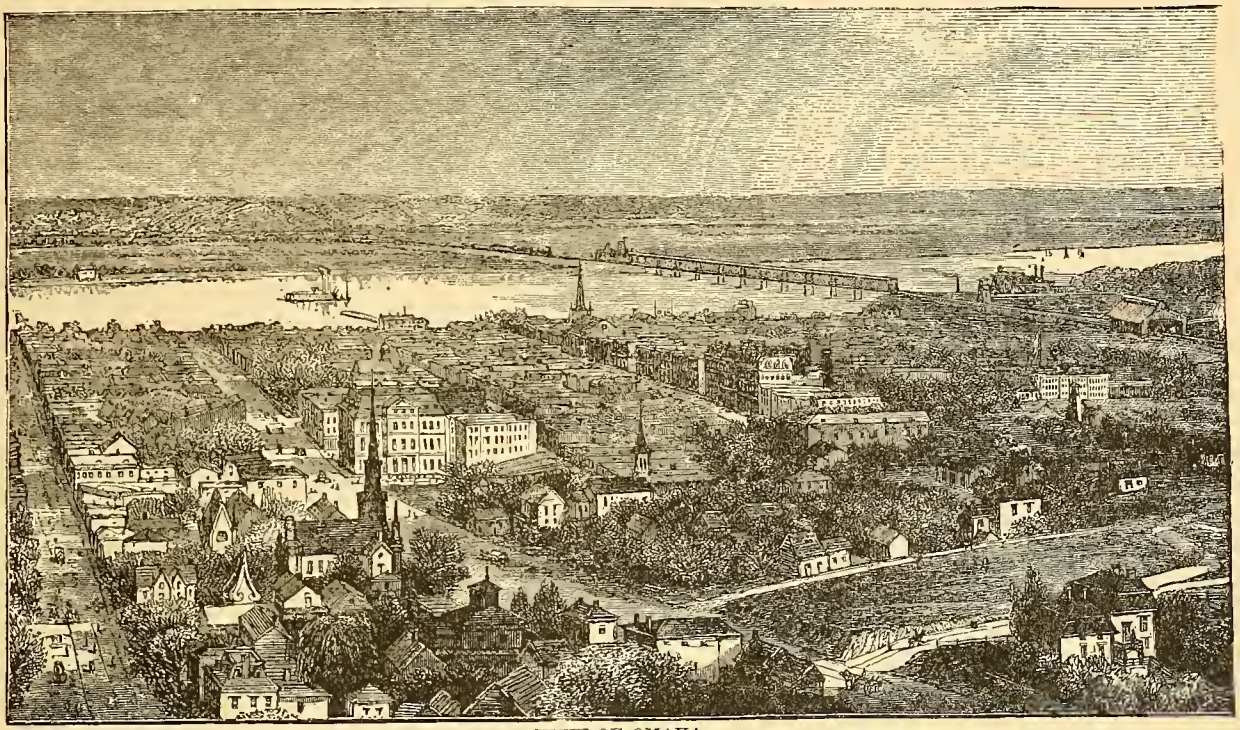


VIEW OF ST. LOUIS.

MISSOURI.

With Illinois on the east, Kansas and Nebraska on the west, Iowa on the north, and Arkansas on the south, stretches the great State of Missouri. The contest over slavery to which that application led is already known to the reader. Like Kansas, it occasioned controversy and conflict, but unlike its border state, it was not the actual field of conflict. Immigration came in accordance with the natural progress of events, and there was no clashing between the representatives of different sections. The Southern element predominated and Missouri became a slave state, without, however, being wholly dependent upon slave-labor. On the contrary, the state was always indebted to free white labor for its development. When the civil war came, the people were very nearly evenly divided in sympathy. It

never seceded, but many of its citizens were to be found in both armies. For the most part Missouri is very rich soil. The iron deposits are of incalculable value. Copper is found, but not in quantities to compete with the Lake Superior Region. The coal supply is abundant. Lead is mined in immense quantities. The timber of the state is excellent and abundant. The products of the state embrace the usual cereals, also tobacco and grapes. The latter are raised in large quantities and the wine manufactured



VIEW OF OMAHA.

forms a prominent brand in the market. Jefferson City is the capital. Kansas City is often called a second Chicago. It is greatly prosperous. Missouri has a good common school system, but gangs of rough outlaws infest the western part of the state and commit train robberies with impunity, sheltered by the dense forests and the barbarism of the sparse settlers. The only great name in the annals of Missouri is that of Thomas H. Benton, thirty years senator from that state.

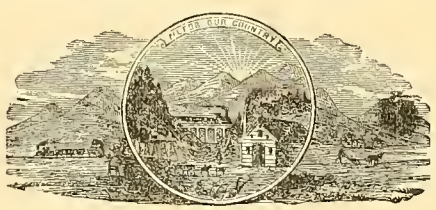
MONTANA TERRITORY.

Montana Territory is bounded on the north by British America, on the east by Dakota, on the south by Wyoming and Idaho, and on the west by Idaho. It is well named, but its mountains abound in nutritious grasses and rich beds of gold and silver. The climate is milder than that in the states further east and on the same lines of latitude. The placer-diggings have yielded richly, and the quartz mines are now being developed to great profit. The territory was organized in 1864. Virginia City is the capital, but Helena is the chief city. Fort Benton, the head of navigation on the Missouri River, is in Montana. In its sheltered valleys immense herds of cattle and flocks of sheep are grazed the year round, and to much profit. What was formerly a hunting-ground for trappers and hunters is now about equally divided between mining and herding.

NEBRASKA.

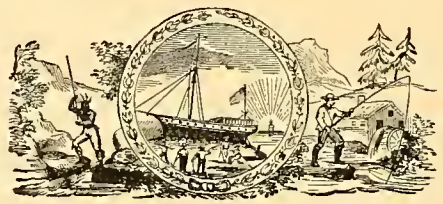
By the terms of the Missouri Compromise, slavery could have been extended to Kansas, but not to

Nebraska. The latter was therefore the bone of contention upon the original reopening of the question of "squatter sovereignty." In the progress of events, however, it was almost lost sight of, and has never shared in the benefits derived by Kansas from political notoriety. In the far West the rainfall is inadequate, but the quantity is gradually increasing. The majestic Platte and Niabrara are its chief rivers, and there are numerous streams. The live-stock of Nebraska is the main reliance of the farmers for income. The cost of marketing grain in its natural form is such as to render it impracticable to rely upon grain-raising alone. The territory was created at the same time that Kansas was, 1854, but it was not admitted into the Union until 1867. Lincoln is the capital, and Omaha its principal city. There are several Indian reservations in the State. There is some coal in the State, but the strata for the most part are too thin to be worked with profit.



NEVADA.

Nevada is an offshot from California. It is a rugged mining region with Oregon and Idaho on the north, Utah and Arizona on the east, and California on the west. The State is wedge-shaped, running to a peak in the south. Of all the states in the Union Nevada is most dependent upon its gold and silver resources for wealth. There is a little good agricultural land within its border, but not much. The silver and gold are found together, the former in great abundance. The famous Comstock lode, or vein, is in Nevada. From it was taken in one year as high as $23,000,000. The Sutro Tunnel penetrates that vein. Virginia City and Gold Hill are mining camps grown into cities above the Comstock, and in consequence of it. Nevada was organized as a territory in 1861, and admitted as a state in 1864. In population it is the least of all the states. Carson City is the capital. From the standpoints of church and school, Nevada cannot be said to make a favorable exhibit. From the standpoint of crime, however, the exhibit is highly favorable to the miners.



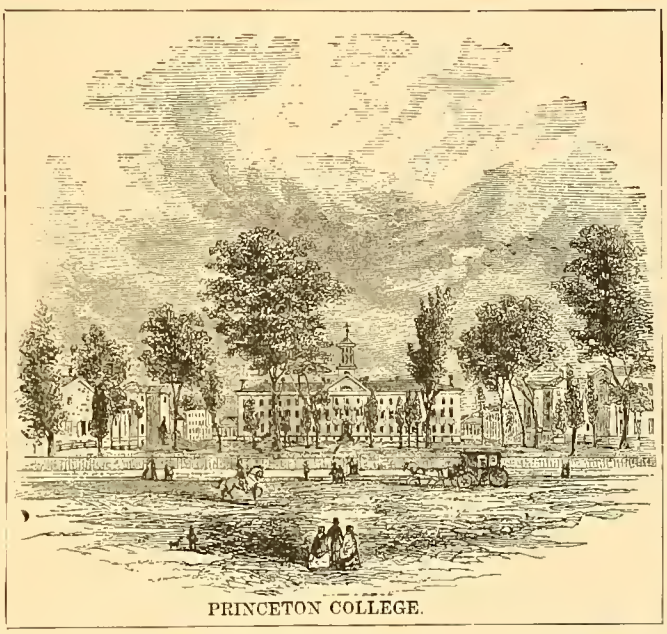
NEW HAMPSHIRE.

The first settlement within New Hampshire was made at Portsmouth in 1623. Its growth was slow. In 1714 it only had eight towns, and they were very small. Colonially it had a varied political experience. Much of the time it was a part of Massachusetts; later it belonged to New York, and finally it was a separate colony. When it separated from New York the region now comprising Vermont was in dispute and was known as the "New Hampshire Grants." Concord was made the capital in 1807, and so remains. Manchester is the largest city in the state; Portsmouth its only seaboard. Its most notable features are Mount Washington, or the White Mountains, and Dartmouth College. The grand and sublime scenery of its mountains attract summer tourists from all parts of the country, and Dartmouth, established in 1770, is in reality a university, ample in all its educational provisions. The land of the state is poor, much of it absolutely worthless. About three-fifths of the state is included in farm lands. The climate is very cold. Some iron is found in paying quantities; also mica, isinglass and graphite. Building granite is an important source of revenue. There are several thrifty manufacturing towns in New Hampshire. The state has given birth to several great men, the most famous of her sons being Daniel Webster.

NEW JERSEY.

New Jersey has the Atlantic Ocean on the east and the States of New York, Pennsylvania and Delaware on its north, west and south. In the southeast are large marshes, and so there are on the Jersey side of the Hudson River. Three mountain ranges traverse the state. But there is a very considerable area of ex-

cellent agricultural land. It is under a high state of cultivation. There are several important manufacturing towns, Newark, Jersey City, and Paterson being the chief. Trenton is the capital. The state is largely a suburb of New York City. Its early history as New Sweden belongs to the colonial period. New Jersey, as a distinct colony bearing that name, dates from 1708. Its first royal governor was Louis Morris, and its last, William Franklin, natural son of Benjamin Franklin, and a pronounced Tory. He was appointed in 1763. A state constitution was adopted July 2, 1776, under which the state was governed until 1844. Gov. Franklin was deposed and sent within the British lines. During the Revolutionary war New Jersey suffered severely, but its patriotism never faltered. Female suffrage prevailed there until 1807. The state has numerous higher schools of learning, two of which were founded in the eighteenth century, namely, the College of New Jersey, at Princeton, 1740, and Rutgers College, New Brunswick, 1770. Both are now universities, and the former is very richly endowed.



PRINCETON COLLEGE.

NEW MEXICO.

New Mexico was visited by the devastating Spaniards before the middle of the sixteenth century. It had quite an advanced native civilization, Aztec or Toltec. The destroying visitors cared only for gold and silver, and that region abounds in both. Abandoned mines attest the operations of long ago. When the republic of Mexico ceded a large part of its territory to the United States, New Mexico was included. It had been conquered by Gen. Kearney in 1848. He raised the American flag over Santa Fe, then as now its chief town. The territory was organized in 1850. Slavery was recognized and protected in 1859, but in 1861 it was abolished, and with it peonage, a modified system of slavery which had existed there for two and a half centuries. The population is still mainly Indian and Mexican. The language employed in legislative debate is the Spanish. Gradually the influx of miners and cattle-men from the North and East is Americanizing the territory. The herding business is carried on upon a large scale, and very rich mines have been so far developed as to establish their high grade. The climate varies widely. In the vicinity of Santa Fe the great altitude renders the winters severe. Very little rain falls in that region. The Apache Indians hinder development by their cruel hostilities; but the Pueblos are a peaceable and somewhat civilized people. They maintain schools and have been decided by the courts to be citizens of the United States. They are not disposed to avail themselves of the rights of citizens, preferring to adhere closely to their traditional tribal or village form of government. The Pueblos are less in the way of civilization, in that remote region, than are the Mexicans, called "Greasers."

NEW YORK.

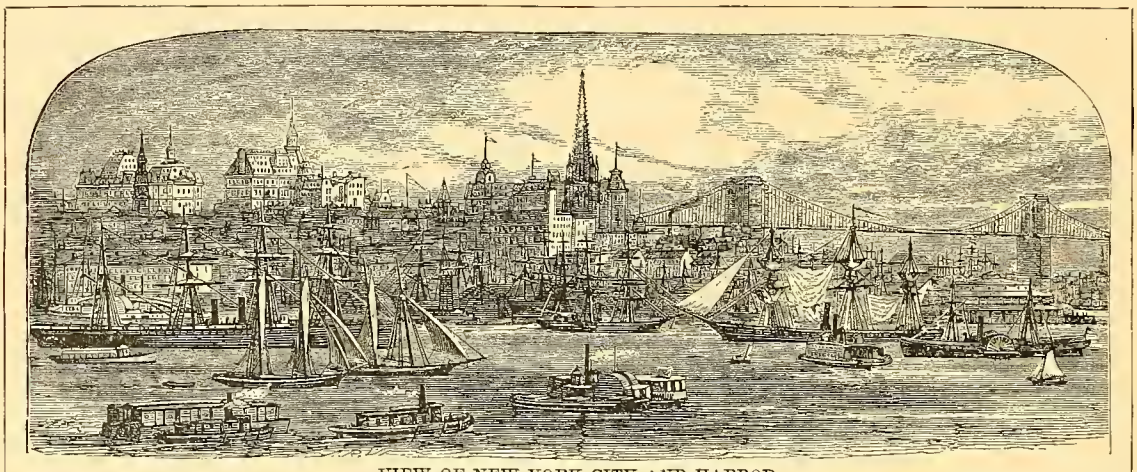
New York is the Empire State of the Union, first in population and wealth, but it is not much over one-third the size of New Mexico. It has a small strip of Canada on the north, but for the most part its north and west boundaries are the St. Lawrence River and Lake Ontario with Lake Champlain, and

the States of Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut along the east, and New Jersey and Pennsylvania along the south. With the exception of the John Brown tract of the Adirondacks the greater part of the state is capable of and actually under a high state of cultivation. In the northeast iron ore is found in paying quantities, and lumbering is conducted upon a large scale.

It is a great dairying state. It has two colleges dating back to the eighteenth century, Columbia, formerly King's College, New York City, 1754, and Union College, Schenectady, 1795; but it was not until Cornell University was established, 1868, that the state could boast a really great university. The great name in the history of New York is Clinton. It appears among the list of royal governors (1743–1753) and twice among the state governors. The great Clinton was De Witt, the father of the Erie Canal. He was governor of the state sixteen years. His prescience and energy secured for New York City a connection with the Northwest, by a canal from Lake Erie to the Hudson River, which gave it a pre-eminence over Boston, Philadelphia, and all other possible rivals. Among its statesmen of renown were also Hamilton, Jay, Van Buren, Marcy and Seward, the least of them all, Van Buren, being the only one to realize the great goal of American ambition.

This great state is noted for its prosperous cities. Its greatest city bearing the same name as the state, is the commercial and financial capital of the New World, surely destined to rival London. It dates from 1614. Its first name was New Amsterdam. Originally a sleepy Dutch town, it had only about 60,000 inhabitants when this century began. It now has more Irish than Dublin and more Yankees than Boston. It has a history which is, in the main, highly creditable. But in 1872 there was disclosed a condition of corruption in its government unparalleled in municipal politics anywhere or at any time. That was known as the "Tweed Ring." After years of persistent effort reform was effected, the leader of the ring brought to justice, and a reign of comparative integrity established.

Brooklyn is the second city in size. It is just across the river from New York, of which it is a suburb. It is almost entirely composed of residences, the men of Brooklyn being occupied in New York during the day. It is sometimes called The City of Churches. Its most popular preacher is Henry Ward Beecher, but it has many great preachers and large and well-filled houses of worship. Buffalo, the head of lake navigation, has been an important city ever since the Erie Canal was constructed. It is opulent and beautiful. Rochester owes its existence to inexhaustible water-power, the richness of the Genesee Valley, and the Erie Canal. Of late years it has been famous for the excellence of its adjacent seed farms and nurseries. The soil and climate of that portion of New York are admirably adapted to both vegetable raising and fruit growing. Syracuse owes its existence and prosperity to its salt-works which yield at least 7,000,000 bushels yearly. The other manufactures of that city are numerous and prosper-

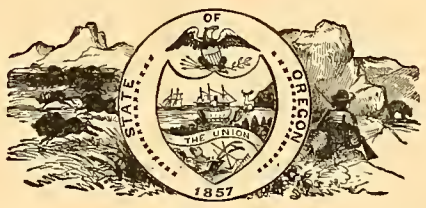


VIEW OF NEW YORK CITY AND HARBOR.

ous. Albany, the capital of the state, is an old and populous city, the head of navigation on the Hudson River. Five miles above it is Troy, which is a great center for stove manufactures and lumber. Utica, Lockport, Binghamton, Elmira, Auburn, Poughkeepsie, Oswego, Saratoga Springs, Ogdensburg, Yonkers, Newburg, Schenectady, Rome, East New York, Kingston, Cohoes and Flushing are thrifty minor cities. But with all its urban splendor, the State of New York is greatest and best as the home of a vast and highly intelligent agricultural population.

NORTH CAROLINA.

North Carolina claims to have sounded the keynote of American Independence, and the claim has foundation. The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence dates back more than a year prior to the declaration adopted by the Continental Congress. It was in effect a petition to Congress in favor of nationality. The action of Congress was ratified by North Carolina in less than a month. A state organization was effected in December following. The constitution of the United States was rejected by North Carolina once, but later it concurred in its ratification. The secession movement found the "Old North" much divided in sympathy, and it required several efforts to secure a vote in favor of secession. The ordinance was passed in May, 1861. The state was restored to the Union in the summer of 1868. Its principal city is Wilmington on the seaboard. Raleigh is the capital. Before the war the University of North Carolina, founded at Chapel Hill, in 1793, was a flourishing institution, but it has been feeble ever since. It was closed from the outbreak of the war until 1875. The state produces rice, tobacco, cotton, peanuts, tar and turpentine. Before the discovery of the California mines its gold-mines were worked to a considerable extent. Coal and iron are abundant in some portions of the state, but the people are sadly lacking in energy.



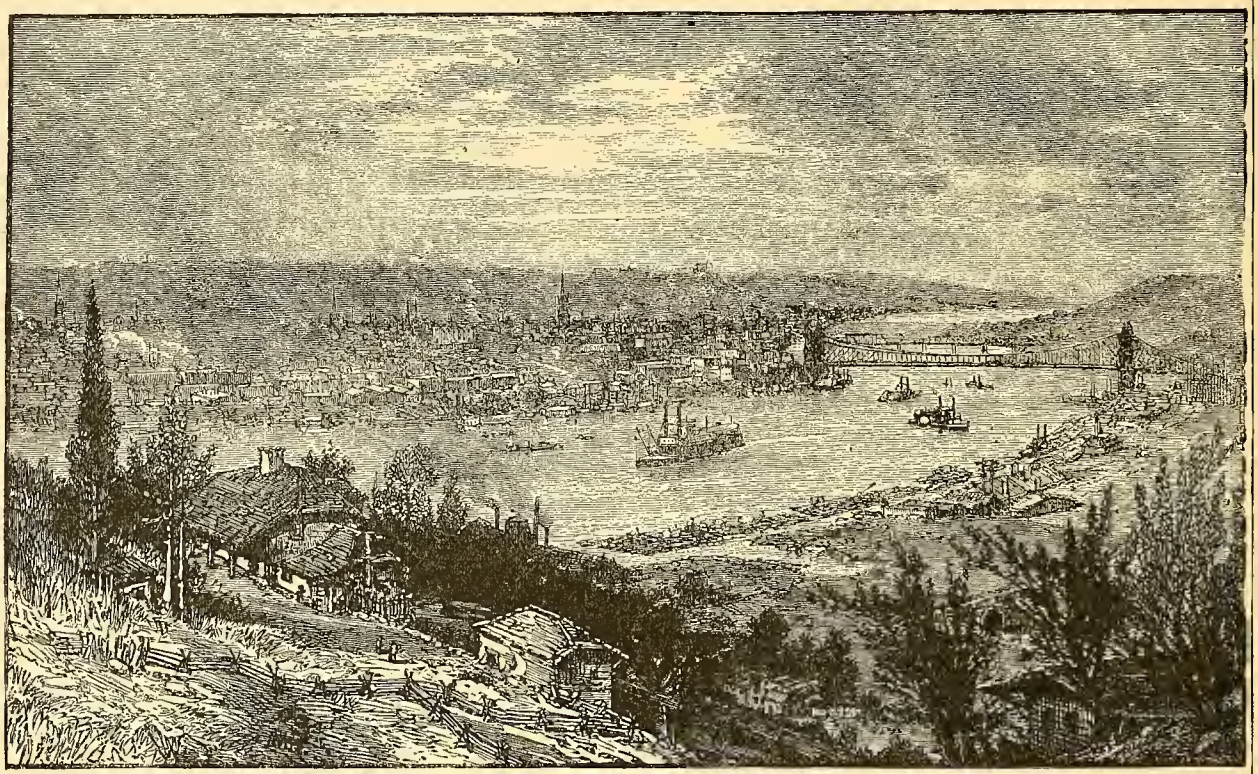
OREGON.

Oregon is the most remote state of the Union, and the least frequented. It is between the parallels of 42° and 46° 18′ of latitude, and longitudes 116° 33′ and 124° 25′. The voyage from San Francisco to Portland, its commercial capital, as Salem is its political, is long and dangerous. The state has three well-defined divisions, the western, middle and eastern. The western or coast division is well watered and arable; the middle division is arid and uninviting, and the eastern abounds in high mountains and fertile valleys. The best part of the state is the delightful Willamette Valley. Considerable gold has been washed from the sands of Oregon and some quartz-mining carried on. It is an excellent country for wheat and livestock. It has several colleges, the Pacific being the oldest and the Willamette the largest. The Territory of Oregon was organized in 1849, including then the present Territory of Washington. Ten years later it was admitted as a state. The war with the Modoc Indians in 1872 was fought within the limits of Oregon.

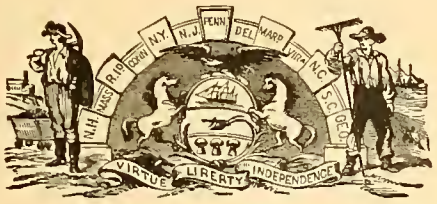
OHIO.

Ohio was once peopled by Indians possessing some civilization. They lived by bread, rather than game, and cultivated the soil in preference to following the trail. They built mounds which still attest their skill in engineering and the largeness of their conceptions. But by the time the region began to be settled by white pioneers the inhabitants were savages, with only faint traces of civilization. The first settlement was made at Marietta in 1788 by a colony from New England. Cincinnati was founded later in the same year. Virginia, Massachusetts, New York and Connecticut all laid claim to the country, the for-

mer having the best claim, the latter the least. They all surrendered their claims, except Connecticut, which held on, partially, to the northwest corner of Ohio, known as the Western Reserve. The Northwest Territory was organized in 1788, with General St. Clair who had been President of the Continental Congress, as first governor. The ordinance establishing the Territory forever prohibited slavery, and set apart for educational purposes a portion of the public domain, on a policy which has always been adhered to in the organization of territories. The state, under the name of Ohio, was admitted to the Union in 1803. From a geographical point of view Kansas is the central state of the Union, but in practical matters Ohio is really the central state. It is rich and prosperous in a pre-eminent degree. It has no mountains, neither is it a prairie state. It is a rolling tableland, admirably adapted, for the most part, to agriculture. It abounds in coal, and in the southern part are found immense deposits of iron. Petroleum has also been found in large quantities. Wheat, corn and livestock are the main dependence of the people. In some portions of the state grapes are raised in immense quantities, especially in the vicinity of lake Erie. There is a great deal of manufacturing industry. The large cities, Cincinnati and Cleveland especially, are extensively engaged in all sorts of manufactures using iron and wood. The state has a very large number of colleges, most of them merely academies, Oberlin and Antioch being best known. The state has produced some eminent men, Thomas Corwin, the great orator, Salmon P. Chase, statesman and jurist, Joshua R. Giddings, statesman, and James A. Garfield, soldier and statesman. It is also the home of Ex-President Hayes and the birthplace of the three great soldiers of the Union, Grant, Sherman and Sheridan. Columbus is the capital. Politically it is almost evenly divided, but generally goes Republican. The native American element is largely composed of New Englanders, or descendants of the Puritans. Between this part of the population and the large German element there is a sharp antagonism on sumptuary and Sabbatic legislation.

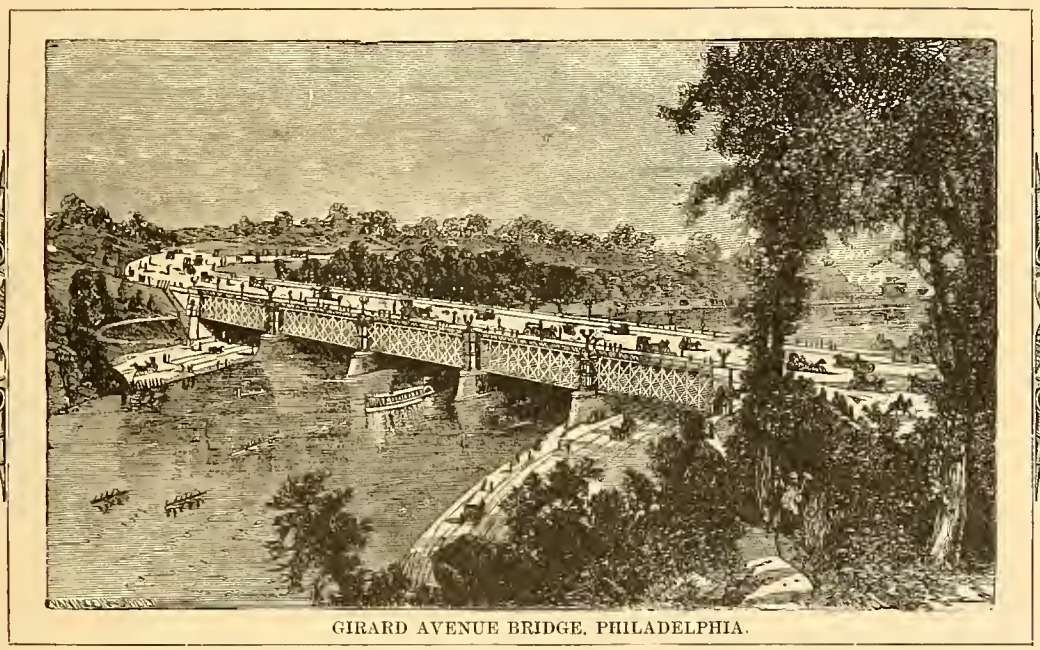


VIEW OF CINCINNATI.



PENNSYLVANIA.

In importance, historical and actual, the great State of Pennsylvania is the peer of Virginia, Massachusetts and New York. It has a large area and the regions not adapted to agriculture abound in coal, plati-

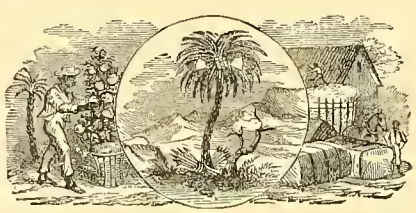


GIRARD AVENUE BRIDGE, PHILADELPHIA.

num or iron, which greatly enhance the value of the surrounding arable land. Nearly 70 per cent. of the entire land area of the state is under cultivation, including the fenced woodland. Anthracite coal is a Pennsylvania monopoly. From twenty-five to thirty millions of tons are consumed every year, all from a few eastern counties. In Western Pennsylvania bituminous coal is found and mined. Petroleum is found in a few places in Ohio, and a little in New York, but the supply nearly all comes from Western Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, once the most important city on the continent, is now second only to New York. It is largely devoted to manufacturing now. Pittsburgh in the western portion of the state is the iron capital of the country. Harrisburg is the capital. The Wyoming Valley is picturesque, fertile and populous. Philadelphia was, for the most part, the capital of the country during the period of struggle with England. The great battle of Gettysburg was fought on the soil of Pennsylvania. The state is more famous for its prominence in public affairs and for its wealth than for its influence upon the intellectual development of the nation. In the domain, however, of professional treatises, legal and medical, especially the latter, it has excelled. Girard College, the munificent gift of Stephen Girard, is the most notable of its institutions. It has an endowment, including the cost of the buildings, of $2,000,000. The oldest college in the state is the University of Pennsylvania, which dates from 1749. Like Girard College, it is located at Philadelphia. When the Revolutionary War began, that city was an important center of scientific research, David Rittenhouse being hardly less famous at that time for his astronomical observations and calculations than Franklin for his experiments in electricity. Political and military exigencies arrested scientific progress. There are sections of the country where the inhabitants speak only German, although their ancestors came to this country several generations ago. They are called Dunkers. They are simple in habits and singularly free from vice and indigence.

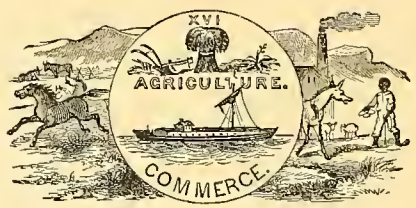
RHODE ISLAND.

Rhode Island is the smallest state in the Union, but Narragansett Bay extends in such a way as to give the state a water frontage of 350 miles. The soil is not very good. About one-fourth of it is still covered with forests. The state is largely devoted to manufactures, more especially cotton, woolen and worsted goods, also jewelry. Providence is its leading city. Newport is famous as a summer resort for the wealthy of New York, Boston and other parts of the country. Its villas are noted for their elegance and luxury. Newport aspired, a century ago, to rivalry in commercial importance with Boston and New York. The commodore appointed by the Continental Congress to take charge of the American navy was Hopkins of Rhode Island. Paul Jones was a Rhode Islander. So too was General Greene, one of the bravest and ablest of the Revolutionary generals. The state was the last of the thirteen to accept the national constitution, not coming into the Union until May 29, 1790. In the war of 1812 a Rhode Islander won renown, Commodore Perry, and most of his men were from the same state. In both wars with England Rhode Island privateers rendered important service. The constitution of the state restricts suffrage to property holders and tax payers or those who may have performed military service during the year. The legislature meets twice a year. Brown University is the only college in the state. It dates from 1765. It is under the auspices of the Baptist denomination, and is liberally endowed and largely patronized.



SOUTH CAROLINA.

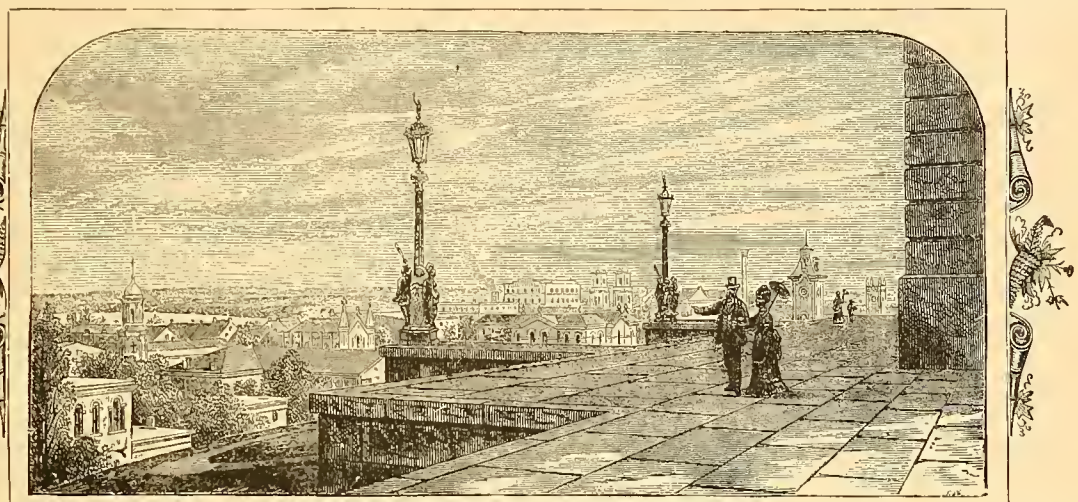
South Carolina is triangular in shape, lying between North Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee and the Atlantic Ocean. It has an area of 34,000 square miles. It is well adapted to grain-raising and cotton-planting. The islands along the coast are numerous and produce peculiarly good cotton. Rice is raised on a very large scale in the lowlands of the state. The palmetto, a species of the palm, is the distinguishing tree of the state. There are three ports of entry in South Carolina, Charleston, Beaufort and Georgetown. The former was once a more important city than Philadelphia or New York, but it lost its pre-eminence long ago. Columbia is the capital, and it is there that the State University, the only prosperous higher institution of learning in the state, is located. South Carolina was effective in support of the patriot cause in the Revolutionary War, prompt to ratify the constitution and join in cementing the Union, but it was the first state to secede. In 1833 it attempted to break up the Union and on the very day that President Lincoln was elected the governor of the state issued a call for a meeting of the legislature for the purpose of seceding. The ordinance of secession was passed December 20, 1860, and in June, 1868, the state was restored to the Union.



TENNESSEE.

Tennessee first comes to view as Washington County, North Carolina, in the Revolutionary period. In 1785 the settlers concluded to organize as a state under the name of Franklin. North Carolina refused to sanction this movement, but in 1789 it ceded the region to the United States, and the next year the Territory of Tennessee was organized. In 1796 it was admitted into the Union as a state. Knoxville was the first capital. The state seceded in May, 1861. It was restored to the Union in 1866. The state is well supplied with coal, iron and marble. The latter is black, gray, red and variegated, very beautiful and abundant, but difficult of access. The country is uneven, often mountainous, but the soil is usually good and the crops liberal. Memphis, on the Mississippi River, is the

largest city in the state, and Nashville, the capital, ranks next. The principal seat of learning is Vanderbilt University at Nashville, founded by Commodore Vanderbilt in 1875. It has an annual income of $42,000.



VIEW OF NASHVILLE FROM THE STATE HOUSE.

TEXAS.

From 1827 to 1829 Sam Houston was governor of Tennessee. He then pushed off into the wilds of the Southwest and was lost sight of. But in 1836 he came to the front as President of the Republic of Texas. The year before he had been appointed commander of the little army raised in Texas to achieve independence of Mexico. The decisive battle was fought at San Jacinto in the spring of 1836, Santa Anna being taken prisoner. He purchased liberty by signing a treaty acknowledging the independence of the revolting republic. The Lone Star, as it was called, remained independent until 1846, when it was admitted into the Union as a state, with the privilege of forming five states. It has an area of 274,365 square miles. Gen. Houston represented the state in the Senate many years, and then in 1859 was elected governor. He held the office when the confederacy was organized, and tried to prevent the secession of the state, but failed. It went out of the Union in 1861 and did not get back again until nine years later. During the last decade the state has made wonderful progress in population. Texas and Kansas may fairly claim unrivaled pre-eminence in this regard. The state is especially well adapted to herding. Austin is the capital and Galveston the chief port on the Gulf of Mexico. San Antonio is a prosperous town. The state has an immense amount of land at its disposal, and recently contracted for the erection of a capitol, to be paid for in land.

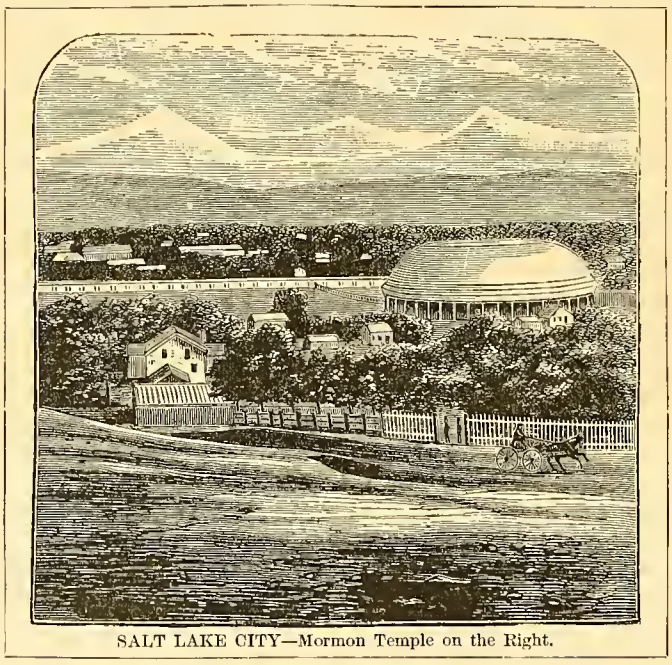
UTAH TERRITORY.

Utah Territory has Arizona on its south, Colorado on the east, Nevada on the west, Idaho and Wyoming on the north, lying mainly in the Wahsatch basin, between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada. It has numerous lakes, none of which have any apparent outlet, although fed by very considerable rivers. One of the bodies of water contains twenty-two per cent. of pure salt, and is known as Salt Lake. No fish can live in it. It is 100 miles long and fifty miles wide. But this natural phenomenon is less remarkable than the people

who constitute the main body of the inhabitants. They are Mormons, or "Latter-day Saints," believing in polygamy as a divine institution and Joseph Smith, a native of Vermont, as an inspired guide. They have a bible which they received through him. He attempted to establish a community in Nauvoo, Illinois, which should be independent of the state. He was killed in 1844, and his followers driven out of the state. They crossed the Mississippi and pushed westward to Council Bluffs, opposite Omaha, intending to establish themselves there, remote from white settlements. But after deliberation and investigation it was decided to leave the United States and found a theocracy in the wilds of Northern Mexico. The valley about Salt Lake was chosen as their retreat, and in 1847 they took up their residence there. Hardly had they done so before the region became a part of the United States, and Congress organized the Territory of Utah. That was in 1850. Brigham Young, the successor of Smith, was made governor. He held the office four years. Since then the government has appointed "gentile" governors and there has always been bitterness between the few gentile inhabitants and the Mormons. The latter number nearly 100,000. In 1857 occurred the Mountain Meadow massacre, by which a large number of pioneers on their way to California, men, women and children, were slain by the Mormon "Danites," and their Indian allies. The Government has tried to eradicate polygamy by prohibitory law, but without success, and recruits are being gathered all the time from the lower classes in England, Wales, and the Scandinavian countries. The Territory derives its name from the Ute tribe of Indians. Salt Lake City, the capital, is a thrifty city. It contains the great tabernacle of the Mormons, with a seating capacity of 7,000 or 8,000. Utah is very rich in precious minerals, but the Mormons confine their industry to agriculture. The land has to be irrigated. The Mormons are very anxious to be admitted as a state, thus escaping from Federal control. Utah has applied for admission as Deserett. Women are allowed to vote in that territory.

VERMONT.

Vermont deserved to be one of the original thirteen states, but was not admitted to the Union until March, 1791. It began to be settled immediately after the French war of 1755–58, by pioneers from New Hampshire. In a few years there were settlements from New York, also from Massachusetts. From 1777 until admitted to the Union, Vermont may be said to have been entirely independent. The people were devoted patriots. Ethan Allen and Seth Warner with their "Green Mountain Boys," distinguished themselves at Ticonderoga. The battle of Bennington also attests the bravery of the Vermonters. The state is almost wholly given to agriculture; manufacturing being little cultivated. The Green Mountains constitute its backbone. The state has two colleges of some standing among the higher institutions of learning, the University of Vermont at Burlington, and Middlebury College, Middlebury. Rutland, St. Albans and St. Johnsbury are the

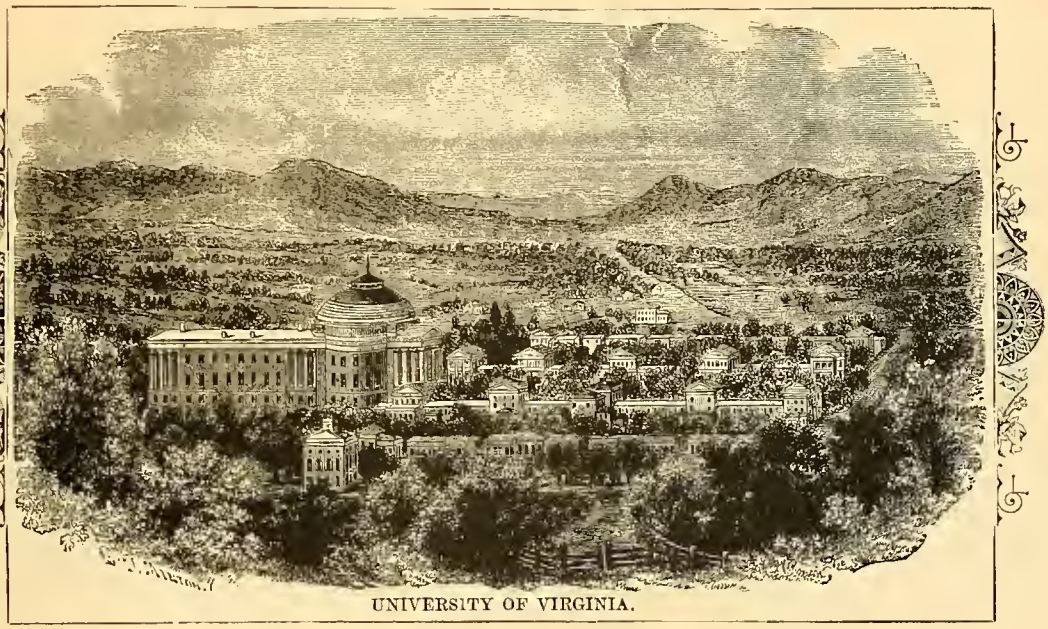


SALT LAKE CITY—Mormon Temple on the Right.

principal towns of the state, and Montpelier the capital. It has the honor of being represented in the Senate of the United States by Geo. F. Edmunds. It was the birthplace of the poet Saxe.

VIRGINIA.

If no specific mention were made in this connection of Virginia, or the "Old Dominion," it would still fill a large place in the American department of this volume, so prominent was it in Colonial and Revolutionary days, and during the first century of the Republic. From 1607, when the first permanent English settlement was made on American soil upon the banks of the James River, until the close of the war between the North and the South, nearly two hundred and sixty years later, Virginia was almost constantly at the front. Since that time it has not been specially prominent, except as made conspicuous in politics by the "Readjusters," led by Senator Mahone, who is urged forward in the hope of breaking the political solidity of the South. When Richmond ceased to be the capital of the Confederacy, and Lee gave up his sword, Virginia subsided. On the 17th of April, 1861, it seceded, and it did not regain its foothold in the Union as an independent, self-governing state until January, 1870. Richmond is the state capital and the chief city of the state, with Norfolk and Petersburg next. As early as 1693, the college of William and Mary was founded; Washington and Lee University in 1749; Hampden Sidney in 1775, and University of Virginia in 1825. The state has always taken commendable interest in education. The plantations were so large and the population so scattered as to render impracticable the common school system of the North, but as the land is being divided, and the negroes are now a part of "the people," public schools are beginning to flourish. The state contains some coal and iron. The soil is generally good, and the climate mild. Tobacco has always been the leading staple of the state. General farming can be carried on to advantage, as nearly all grains and grasses thrive there. Gold has been discovered in rich quartz within the limits of the state; but, thus far, the mines have never been worked to advantage. Virginia is very proud of its record, and justly so. It is familiarly known as "The Old Dominion."



UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

WASHINGTON TERRITORY.

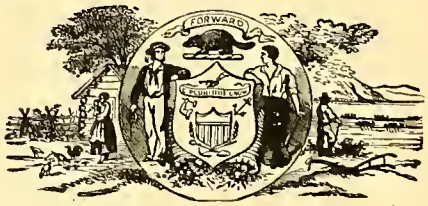
Washington Territory is the extreme northwest (except Alaska) of the United States, having British Columbia on the north, Idaho on the east, Oregon on the south and the Pacific Ocean on the west. It was once known as the Puget Sound Region. It was visited by Lewis and Clark in 1815. The Hudson Bay Company tried to seize and appropriate it in 1828. The territory was organized in 1853. Its present boundaries were fixed ten years later. It contains some gold and a great deal of coal, but its chief attractions are its fertile wheat-lands and broad pastures. The climate on the coast is softened by warm sea breezes. Olympia is the capital. With the Northern Pacific railroad completed, it is expected that Washington Territory, thus far slow to develop, will rapidly fill up with agriculturists.

people in the mountainous northwest portion of the state remained loyal to the Union. They had long wanted to escape from Virginia and form a separate state, and the opportunity was then afforded for doing so. In June, 1861, steps were taken for effecting a state organization, and two years later West Virginia came into the Union. Nearly two-thirds of the state is covered with the original forest. Wheeling, the capital and chief city, is a great center for iron works. The state is largely indebted to its iron and coal for its prosperity. The state of Virginia insists that West Virginia should assume its proportion of the old state debt, but West Virginia is not disposed to entertain the proposition, and there is no way to compel the state to pay any part of that obligation, nor is there the slightest prospect of any change of opinion on the subject.

VIEW OF MILWAUKEE, WISCONSIN.

WEST VIRGINIA.

West Virginia is an offshoot from Virginia. When the latter joined the Confederacy a majority of the



WISCONSIN.

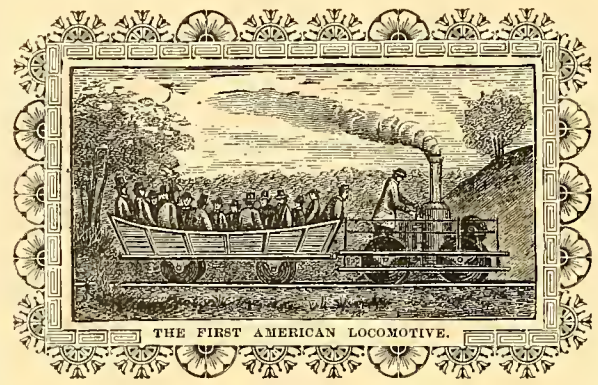
As early as 1636 a white settlement was made at Green Bay. That was the beginning of civilization

in Wisconsin. But no present connection can be traced between the French missions of the 17th century and the modern state. The territory was organized in 1836, and included the extreme northwest, in a somewhat vague way. Two years later Wisconsin was admitted to the Union with its present boundaries. It has Illinois on the south, Lake Michigan and the State of Michigan on the east, Lake Superior on the north, and Minnesota and Iowa on the west. The state is very uneven in the character of its soil, having much good farming land and some barren sand-fields. The lumber tracts are extensive and very valuable. Milwaukee, once a rival of Chicago and still an important city, is the principal center of business in the state. Madison is the capital. The population, originally, was composed of pioneers from New England and New York. Of late years a great many Scandinavians and Germans have settled in the state. Lakes of great beauty abound. The country is rolling. The state has at its capital a university under state control which ranks among the great institutions of learning. Wisconsin has several important rivers, which have been and are still of great advantage for milling and commercial purposes. The chief of these are the Wisconsin, the Chippewa, and the Fox. The former and latter are connected by a canal. Immense quantities of pine logs are floated down these rivers and manufactured into lumber upon their banks.

WYOMING TERRITORY.

Wyoming Territory is at the foot of the list of states and territories in every respect. With an area of nearly 100,000 square miles, it has almost no land at all adapted to agriculture. The sparse bunch-grass of its plains affords pasturage for cattle. Cheyenne, its capital, is the only town within its limits of any considerable magnitude. It is a great center for the cattle trade and shipment of the plains. The territory was organized in 1868. There is some coal along and near the Union Pacific railroad. The National Park forms the extreme northwest corner of Wyoming. That is the region of geysers so wonderful that Congress by specific legislation reserved the tract as a public domain forever. It comprises an area of 3,575 square miles. No other equal area contains so many natural phenomena of interest. "There are more hot springs and geysers in this area," says Hayden, "than in all the remainder of the world besides."

Having now considered alphabetically the several states and territories of the United States, it only remains to add that the combining of so many essentially independent commonwealths in one nation is no longer an experiment, and every vestige of hostility to the union of the states has disappeared, belonging exclusively to historical, in distinction from actual America.



THE FIRST AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVE.

AMERICAN INVENTIONS AND INVENTORS.

CHAPTER LXXXVII.

THE CONSTITUTION AND PATENT RIGHTS—THE PATENT SYSTEM IN ENGLAND—COLONIAL PATENTS—STEAMSHIPS AND ROBERT FULTON—THE PATENT OFFICE—WHITNEY AND THE COTTON GIN—"ASSEMBLING" AND THE AMERICAN WATCH—JETHRO WOOD AND THE PLOW—THE FIRST LOCOMOTIVE AND PETER COOPER—THE LATHE—GUNS AND REVOLVERS—FIRE ENGINES AND ALARM—AIR-BRAKE—AMERICAN PRESSES—SCALES AND SAFES—ELECTRICITY—THE SEWING MACHINE—MOWERS AND REAPERS—GOODYEAR AND INDIA-RUBBER—ANÆSTHETICS—JOHN ERICSSON—EADS AND THE ST. LOUIS BRIDGE—THE BOOT CRIMPER—THE STEAM HAMMER—THE BRASS CLOCK.

THE constitution of the United States provides that "the Congress shall have power to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries." To that recognition of the right of property in ideas is the United States very largely indebted for its present pre-eminence among the nations of the earth.

Mr. Charles Reade was not romancing, but stating moderately a great fact, when he said, "Europe teems with the material products of American genius. American patents print English newspapers and sew Englishmen's shirts. A Briton goes to his work by American clocks and is warmed by American stoves. In a word, America is the leading nation in all matters of material invention and construction, and no other nation rivals or approaches it." The reference here is solely to the United States, and the same, it may be added, will be true throughout the current chapters. The patent system is very old. Faint traces of it are to be found in ancient history, but so very faint as to be almost indistinguishable. In modern times it is first found in England. The common law grants to the sovereign the right to issue letters patent for monopolies in inventions and other things. What is called in the written law of England the "Statute of Monopolies," designed to check abuses of a grievous nature in the exercise of the royal prerogative herein, is regarded as the basis of patent law in this country also. The earliest recorded patent in the world goes back to the times of Edward III. That king granted a patent to "two friars and two aldermen" for a philosopher's stone. Thus curiously blended are the absurd conceits of the past with the solid acquisitions of the present.

The earliest patent in America was issued in 1641 by the General Court of the Colony of Massachusetts. It granted to Samuel Winslow the exclusive right for ten years to use a certain specified process in making salt. The next patent was eleven years later. One John Clark was allowed a royalty of ten shillings from every family which should use his method of "saving wood and warming houses at

little cost." Governor Winthrop's son, John, took out in 1656 a patent for a process for making salt.

Connecticut has a very creditable patent record. In 1672 that colony passed a law that, "there shall be no monopolies granted among us but of such new inventions as shall be judged profitable and for the benefit of the country, and for such time as the General Court shall judge meet." Under this law a monopoly in steel-making was granted to two persons in 1728. Very little attention was paid to patents, however, during the colonial period, and the only great American inventor of that period, Franklin, never sought any monopoly on his lightning rod.

YOUNG FRANKLIN.

The first patent of the United States, under the first law based on the constitutional provision quoted, bears date of July 31, 1790, the same year in which the law itself was enacted. It ran to Samuel Hopkins, and related to making pot and pearl ashes. There were two other patents, also of trivial importance, granted that year. At the present time the issue is at the rate of more than 20,000 per annum. It is in 1791, that we are afforded a glimpse of the great future in store for American ingenuity. The number of patents granted rose to thirty-one, and included six patents to James Rumsay and one to John Fitch of Philadelphia, relative to steam-engines and steamships. From that point dates, properly, America's entry upon the field of steam utilization. We find in a reference book issued by the *Scientific American* a brief statement of the history of the steam-engine which may well find place here. It is as follows:

"Papin, of France, was the first (in 1690) to operate a piston by steam, which acted only on one side of the piston. He also invented the safety-valve. He was born 1650, died 1710. Savery, 1697, first employed steam power in doing useful work. His piston, like Papin's, took steam on one side only, the pressure of the atmosphere being admitted to the other side. James Watt was the first to make the complete steam-engine, or the existing forms in which steam acts on both sides of the piston. He also made the steam-condenser, the governor, the walking-beam, applied the fly-wheel, and nearly all the parts of the modern engine. He was born 1736, died 1819. He made a rotary steam-engine in 1782, and patented a locomotive engine in 1784. In 1804, Trevithick and Vivian operated a locomotive which traveled five miles an hour, with a load of ten tons. Cook, in 1808, used fixed engines with ropes to draw railway-cars. Blachett and Hedley, in 1813, discovered that smooth locomotive wheels might be used on railways, instead of toothed wheels and toothed rails before required. George Stevenson, 1825, made railway locomotion successful by adapting the locomotive to variable speeds and loads, by means of his blast-pipe, and by introducing the tubular boiler, which latter was suggested to him and invented by Booth, 1829. October 6, 1829, the famous competitive trial of locomotives on the Liverpool and Manchester railway took place, which established the superiority of Stevenson's locomotives, and inaugurated the art of railway communication. The first steamboat actually employed in business was a small vessel built by John Fitch of Pennsylvania, 1790, worked on the Delaware; speed, 7½ miles per hour. Robert Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, made her first trip from New York to Albany, August, 1807; speed, five miles per hour." The first steam-vessel to cross the Atlantic was the *Savannah*, in 1819, from Savannah to Liverpool, 26 days. Robert Fulton was the first to demonstrate the practicability of the idea. He was the introducer rather than the inventor of steam navigation. Fulton was born at Little Britain, Pennsylvania in 1765, and died in 1825. His early life was spent at the easel and the brush. His last achievement was the construction of the first steam war-vessel.

FULTON'S STEAMBOAT.

In those primitive days of the republic the peti-

tion for a patent was made to the Secretary of State, the Secretary of War, or the Attorney-General, and the patent could be issued by the President upon the recommendation of two of the three officers named. The State Department came to be the patent office of the government, in effect, until after the creation of the Interior Department, when, in 1849, Congress transferred the Patent Bureau to the new department, where it has developed from a beginning so small as to be almost beneath notice into one of the most important branches of the national government employing many hundred clerks, who are, or must become, experts in mechanism and chemistry, for patents extend to medicines and other ingredients which involve chemical science no less than to mechanism. The models on file in the Patent office form a very interesting collection, and afford an ample field for study.

The first great American invention in mechanism was Eli Whitney's cotton gin, which dates from 1794. Whitney was a Yankee schoolmaster at the South. By a simple process, the use of teeth and slats, he contrived to separate the seeds from the cotton, which before his day had to be done by hand. He trebled the value of all cotton lands, yet realized nothing from this invention, so easily and generally was his right infringed. He afterwards acquired a fortune in the manufacture of improved firearms. Whitney was born in Westborough, Massachusetts, December 8, 1765, and died in New Haven, Connecticut, December 8, 1825.

Sir Richard Arkwright, an English barber, originally, is justly regarded as the founder of the factory system, if not the inventor of the spinning-jenny. Others had invented machinery for weaving, but he utilized the mule spinner and the various appliances for converting raw cotton into cloth. It was not, however, until the cotton mills of Waltham, Massachusetts, were set up (1813) that machines for all the processes which convert the raw cotton into cloth were combined in one establishment. The mechanism for weaving, dyeing, and the like, received a great many improvements from time to time from American artisans.

What is called the system of "assembling" is a conspicuous feature of American ingenuity. Knight defines it as "the system of making the component parts of a machine or implement in distinct pieces of fixed shape and dimensions, so that corresponding parts are interchangeable." The first watch made in this country was the "American" of Waltham, Massachusetts, and in regard to it Knight observes, "The American system of watch-making, by gathering all the operations under one roof, making the parts as largely as possible by machines, each part being made in quantities by gauge and pattern, and pieces afterwards 'assembled,' dates back to 1852." A. L. Denison is the name associated with the pioneer operations in this line.

The plow early engaged the attention of American talent. President Jefferson devoted a great deal of thought to its construction, and so did Timothy Pickering, another leading statesman of the republic in its infancy. But the inventor of the modern plow was Jethro Wood, of Scipio, New York, of whom Wm. H. Seward once wrote, "No citizen of the United States has conferred greater economical benefits on his country than Jethro Wood—none of her benefactors have been more inadequately rewarded." Mr. Wood's great invention dates from 1819. It was the beginning of a new era in husbandry. This great benefactor not only realized no profit from his invention, but lost a fortune in trying to secure his rights. His only re-

ward was the consciousness of having lightened the toil of the farmer and increased the productiveness of the soil tilled. Wood, like Whitney, was a native of Massachusetts. He was born at Dartmouth, March 16, 1774. He died in 1834.

The first locomotive used outside of England was manufactured in that country for use in this country in 1829. It was not suited to the purpose, and Mr. Peter Cooper, the venerable philanthropist of New York City, then a young man, devised and constructed an engine which met the requirements of the case. That was in 1829. Mr. Cooper thus belongs in the list of great inventors. He was born in 1791. This noble philanthropist must rank among the best products of American civilization. In 1876 he was the Greenback candidate for President, and as late as 1880 took an active interest in politics. Cooper Institute, New York, with its munificent endowment, is a monument of his goodness.

JETHRO WOOD.

One of the grand and fundamental improvements of modern times is the lathe, the invention of Thomas Blanchard. He was born at Sutton, Massachusetts, in 1788. He survived until 1864. His inventions were somewhat numerous, the first being a tack machine in 1806. It was in 1843 that he patented the lathe, now in almost universal use the world over for turning every sort of wooden device, from an axe-helve to a gunstock.

Although this country has been engaged but little in war during the century since independence was achieved, and its standing army is trivial in the extreme, it has excelled in firearms, from pocket-pieces to siege guns. The pistol is old, but the revolver is American and modern. Its inventor was Samuel Colt, born at Hartford, Connecticut, July 19, 1814. The principle itself was not wholly unknown, but its application and introduction are attributable to Colt. He made an immense fortune out of the manufacture of these arms, expending on his works, including cottages for the workmen, not less than $3,000,000. He died January 10, 1862.

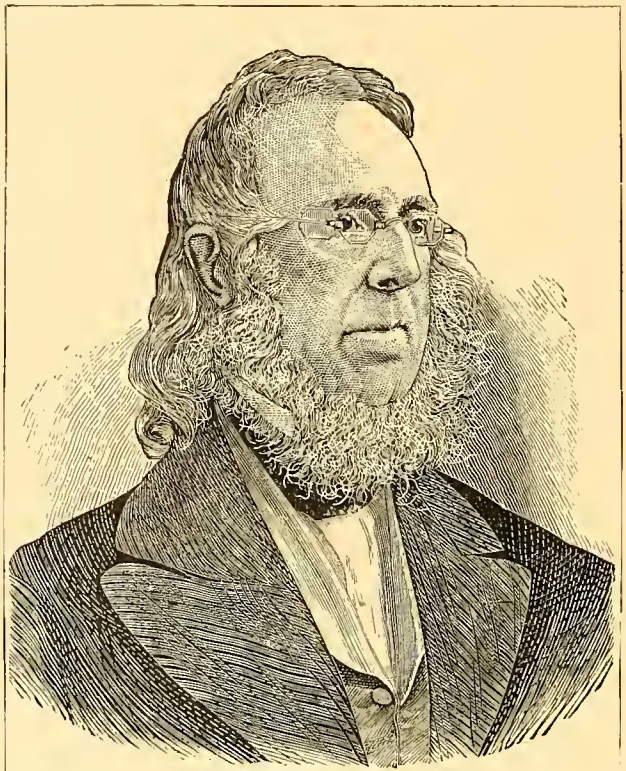
Speaking of firearms in general, an eminent authority remarks, "With a single exception, the main features of all the prominent military rifles originated in the United States." That exception is the needle-gun. Fire engines, both water and chemical, attest the superior ingenuity of the American mind. The system of fire-alarms is also American.

The atmospheric brake for railroad cars is one of the great American inventions. The most important of the numerous devices in that line is the Westinghouse air-brake, which has proved immensely profitable and of incalculable benefit in lessening the perils of travel by rail. Air is used in operating the brake. Knight attempts to make the brake intelligible to the general reader by the following description: "Air is condensed to the required extent into a reservoir by a steam-pump upon the locomotive. From the reservoir it is conducted back beneath the cars of the train by pipes connected beneath the train by flexible tubes and valve-couplings. Under each car is a cylinder to which the compressed air is admitted forward of a piston, the stem of which is connected with a bell-crank attached to the brake levers by rods, so that when air is admitted by the engineer to the pipes connected to the cylinders under each car, the brakes of each are simultaneously applied." This explanation has been given because the mere observer of this brake can really see nothing, while an inspection in the case of ordinary inventions is to some extent instructive.

In the art of printing, especially press-work, this country can also claim pre-eminence. Franklin made some improvements in presses, but the Hoe, Adams, Potter, Campbell, and several other recent

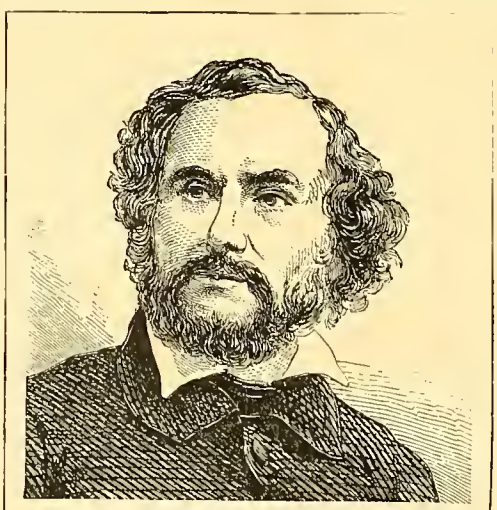
presses in use, whereon printing is done, testify most eloquently to the skill of America in devising and executing mechanical plans.

The substitution of scales for steelyards was the invention of Thaddeus Fairbanks. From the same rural town of Brimfield, Massachusetts, came two highly important contributions to modern civilization, Fairbanks' scales and Herring's safes. The Fairbanks brothers, Thaddeus and Erastus, established their factory, however, at St. Johnsbury, Vermont. Erastus was governor of the state at two widely different times. The American safe has no equal anywhere, and the American scales no competitors.



PETER COOPER.

In electricity this country stands unrivaled. Franklin tamed the lightning; Morse made it our errand-boy; Gray, Bell and Edison may be said to have imparted to it the power of speech. The lightning-rod robbed the thunderbolt of its terrors; the telegraph almost annihilates distance as a barrier to communication, and the telephone transmits the voice itself. With Franklin, Morse, Edison, Gray, and Bell ranks also Cyrus W. Field, who, if he did not invent submarine telegraphy, achieved that marvel of all ages, the successful laying of a cable across the Atlantic ocean.

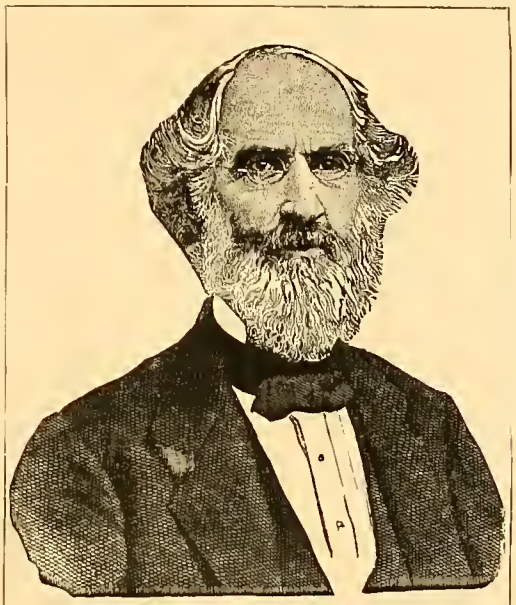


SAMUEL COLT.

S. F. B. Morse was born in Charlestown, Massachusetts, April 20, 1791. He was an artist and a lecturer on the literature of art. In 1832 he devised and put into primitive use the system of telegraphy. Eleven years later Congress made an appropriation for an experimental line from Washington to Baltimore. The same year he suggested a marine cable. He realized a fortune from his invention, and survived to see a bronze statue of himself erected in Central Park, New York. He died in 1872.

We turn now to the sewing machine. That was the invention of Elias Howe. Some approaches were made to the discovery of the principle of this wonderful and revolutionary piece of mechanism by Thomas Saint of England in 1790, and Themonnier of Paris in 1830, Adams and Dodge of Vermont in 1818, Greenough of New York in 1842, and Walter Hunt in 1832-35, contributed to the invention. Howe does not appear to have had any acquaintance with these experiments which hovered upon the verge of success. He was born in Spencer, Massachusetts, in 1819. The use of two threads, a shuttle and a curved needle with the eye near the point, especially the latter, were the solution of the problem over which he pondered for years. He took out his patent in 1846. For eight years he suffered

the most extreme poverty, being engaged in trying to introduce his machines or defend his patent rights. A decision of the court in 1854 established Howe's claim to priority, and from that time until his death, 1867, he was in the enjoyment of a princely revenue from the royalty on his patent. Not much if any less than 3,000 sewing machine patents have been taken out in this country, but until the expiration of his monopoly Howe received a royalty on every machine made, his patent being fundamental. He was an ardent patriot, and in 1851 enlisted as a common soldier in defense of the Union.



THADDEUS FAIRBANKS.

The use of horse power and mechanism in mowing, harvesting and husbandry generally may be set down as an American idea. The mowing machine exhibited by Cyrus H. McCormick of Chicago at the World's Fair, London, in 1851, was one of the more attractive features of that exposition. It brought to the attention of mankind a substitute for the scythe and snath, and marked a new era in farming. Mr. McCormick was born in Virginia in 1809. His first machine was constructed as early as 1831. Of a kindred nature are the harvesters of the country, almost endless in variety and inestimable in value. The plow of Jethro Wood needed to be supplemented by machinery for putting in and taking off the crop. There was also need of horse power machinery for separating seed from straw, and American ingenuity fully supplied the demands of the case, including elevators for storage. The elevator system is indispensable to the proper handling of grain, and for it the world is indebted to the United States.

S. C. HERRING.

In 1800 was born at New Haven, Connecticut, Charles Goodyear to whom mankind owes the vulcanization of India rubber and the conversion of that material into numberless practical uses. It was a discovery by accident rather than an invention, properly speaking, but the details of the idea were worked out only by long and patient toil. For six years Goodyear experimented until at last he ascertained the right way to vulcanize rubber, namely by mixing with it sulphur, and treating them properly. The uses of this material are constantly widening. Mr. Goodyear died in 1860.

The use of ether as an anæsthetic was introduced by two Boston physicians, Drs. Jackson and Morton, in 1846. Chloroform was discovered by Dr. Simpson the year following. The use of anæsthetics in surgical and dental operations and in obstetrics has lessened the volume of human agony incalculably. Mechanical dentistry, it may be added, is one of the prominent glories of American skill.

One of the greatest of inventors is John Ericsson, a Swede by birth, an American by citizenship and

long residence. He was born in 1803. He made many improvements in steamers and railway locomotives, but his greatest achievements were naval. He may be said to have revolutionized the navies of the world. The ironclads which he invented and built for the United States navy in the late war proved the beginning of a radical change in naval architecture. He is said to have recently invented a new and almost invulnerable war ship which is likely to effect still another revolution in the navies of the world.

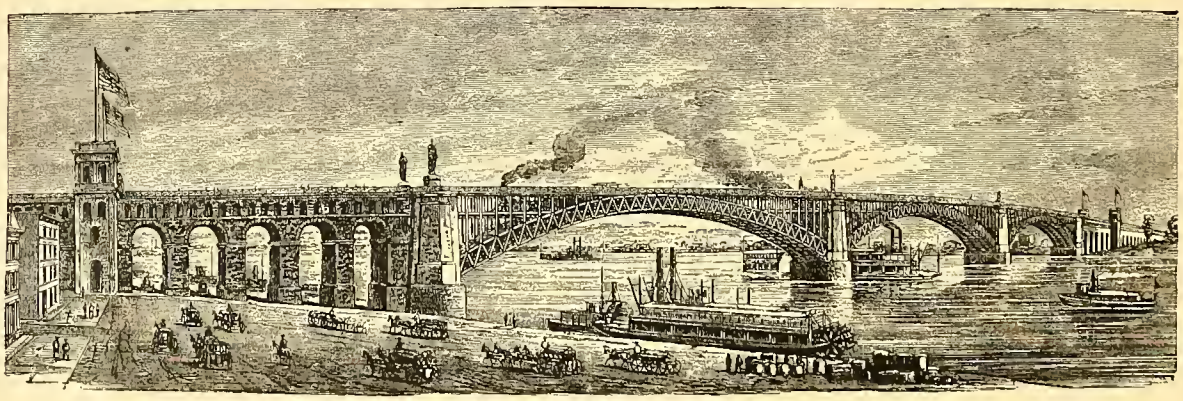
S. F. B. MORSE.

ELIAS HOWE.

The bridge which spans the Mississippi river at St. Louis is pronounced by competent judges the grandest structure in the world of a strictly practical nature. It was planned and built by James B. Eads, who was born in 1820, and who had been second only to Ericsson in usefulness to the United States in naval construction from 1861 to 1865. The St. Louis bridge has three spans, one is 515, and the other two 497 feet, each. Its middle arch has only one companion piece of work, the one of Kuilinburg, Holland. The following description gives some faint idea of the work: "Each span consists of four arches having two members each, an upper and a lower one. Each member is of two-paneled cast-steel tubes nine inches in exterior diameter set closely together, and each made in four segments whose junctions form ribs. The upper and lower members are eight feet apart. The whole fabric is stiffened by systems of diagonal, vertical and horizontal braces."

CYRUS H. M'CORMICK.

The boot crimper, invented by Moore in 1812, proved a great help in the manufacture of boots, as did the pegging machine invented by Gallahue in 1858. The steam hammer dates from 1838, ten years after the planing machine invented by Woodworth. The first brass clock was invented in America by Chauncey Jerome, and proved a benefit to the entire civilized world.



RAILROAD BRIDGE ACROSS THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER AT ST. LOUIS.

AMERICAN INDUSTRY AND ART.

CHAPTER LXXXVIII.

General Facts—Agriculture—Fisheries—Silk Culture—Cotton, Infant and King—Iron and Steel—Wool and Woolens—Manufactures, 1880—American Cereals—Mineral Productions—Beef, Livestock and Provisions—Railroads and Shipping—Insurance—American Money; Historical and Actual—American Art and Artists.

INVENTION and industry, if not absolutely inseparable, are certainly greatly helpful to each other. It would be impossible to present, whether in detail or in a general way, American inventions without throwing much light upon the industrial development of the country; but such incidental information serves rather to sharpen than to satisfy the appetite, and it is proposed in this chapter to set forth the beginnings of the leading skilled industries of America, and the present condition of the country from the standpoint of industry, as shown by the census of 1880. It would be tedious to follow the development itself step by step, for each footprint is a column of statistics, and at best this chapter will be burdened with figures.

Agriculture is the great industry of the world, more especially of America. It is the foundation of all prosperity, and it is the employment of the great bulk of the population. Lord Beaconsfield was accustomed to insist that land owning was the only basis of a genuine aristocracy, and he might have added that when tillage and ownership were combined the highest ideal of aggregate life was realized. Herein the United States leads the world. This country has no peasant class, unless it be the negroes who work the plantations at the South. The American farmer is at once a laborer and in its best sense an aristocrat. In the area of cereal cultivation Russia alone can equal the United States, and in agriculture as a whole America has no rival.

It may be said that fishing was the first industry of this country. Our English ancestors made a business of catching cod before they even attempted to settle upon the continent. The cod is unknown in the Mediterranean sea, and several choice varieties are peculiar to the American coast. The English and the Dutch found the cod-fisheries near Holland, Scotland, Norway and Iceland profitable as early as the fourteenth century, but the fisheries off Newfoundland and New England yielded more bountifully. Although this industry has greatly declined, there are several thousand vessels engaged in the business at the present time, and to Maine and Massachusetts this is still a prominent and profitable industry. The American population supported by fishing is said to be about 1,000,000. Whaling, which was once a flourishing business, has almost disappeared.

The first land industry contemplated, not counting tobacco-raising, (the prominence of which was

brought out in connection with colonial history) was silk culture. The founders of Virginia thought that the mulberry and the silk-worm would flourish on this continent, and that the great staple of luxurious clothing, then confined as a production to the far East, and to the northern coast of the Mediterranean as a manufacture, could be producted in America. In 1623 the legislature of Virginia passed a statute directing all settlers to plant mulberry trees. At one time a mania for silk culture took possession of the people. It may be traced as far south as Louisiana, as far west as Illinois, and as far north as Vermont. Repeated failures attest perseverance. The first export of raw silk to Europe was a small consignment of cocoons raised in Georgia and taken to England by Governor Oglethorpe in 1734. Thirteen years later Governor Law of Connecticut had a suit of clothes made from silk raised, spun and woven in that colony. That was a year before the first bale of cotton was exported from this country. In 1792 dress silk was first produced in this country. It was a strictly domestic industry for several years. In 1810 machine-made silk was produced in Connecticut on a small scale. The mania referred to dates from 1829 to 1840. During that period the feasibility of silk-raising on this continent was thoroughly tested, and received fatal discouragement. Some revival of the interest in this industry was shown in 1872, but in its manufacture rather than its cultivation. The domestic fabric, at first quite inferior, is now an excellent article, and the manufacture is thrifty. Paterson, New Jersey, is the great center of this industry.

The Indians discovered by Columbus were clothed sparsely with cotton cloth it is claimed, but the cotton industry may be traced to the first seed sown on the soil of Virginia in 1621, although the first export was in 1748, and as late as 1784 eight bales exported to England were confiscated on the ground that "so much cotton could not be produced in the United States." The cotton-gin of the previous chapter may be said to have given this industry its real start. The first cotton-mill of the country was erected at Beverley, Massachusetts, in 1788. The consumption of raw cotton in the United States in 1880 was 911,000,000 pounds. During the last decade cotton was the textile industry which developed the most rapidly in this country.

COTTON PICKING.

NEW ENGLAND COD FISHERIES.

Iron is an industry which dates, so far as concerns America, from 1620. Bog iron-ore, found near Jamestown, was used. In 1643 bog-iron was utilized in Massachusetts. The manufacture of iron received quite an impetus in 1652, and now this country makes one-fourth of the steel and one-fourth of the iron of the whole world. The iron production of 1880 in this country was 3,320,000 tons, and the steel 800,000 tons. The United States is second only to Great Britain in this great branch of industry. Our ore beds are so rich that bog iron is almost as obsolete as hand-made cloth.

Sheep were introduced into New York in 1625, and into Massachusetts in 1633. In 1777 the making of wool-card teeth by machinery instead of by hand, was invented by Oliver Evans. These three beginnings may be called the foundation of the woolen interest in America. The clip of 1879 in the United States amounted to 165,000,000 pounds, and the textile production of 1880 was 258,000,000 pounds.

The foregoing are the great staples of manufacture. In a discussion of the balance-sheet of this country, Mulhall says, "It would be impossible to find in history a parallel to the progress of the United States in the last ten years," referring to the decade from 1870 to 1880. The aggregate of industries was in round numbers $10,020,000,000 during the year 1880. Of this amount $4,440,000,000 must be set down to the credit of manufactures, while agriculture can claim $2,625,000,000, leaving the remainder to be divided between commerce, mining, transportation, banking and sundries.

Of agriculture Mulhall observes that it has not kept pace with population, as regards value, but in amount of production it has increased more rapidly than population. The grain of 1880 was 2,390,000,000 bushels; the hay, 24,150,000,000,000 tons; the cotton, 2,773,000,000 pounds. The census of that year gave the number of farming stock thus: horses, 12,550,000; cows, 33,600,000; sheep, 38,000,000; hogs, 35,000,000, making a grand total of 119,150,000 head, or 2.39 head per inhabitant. This is surely a very satisfactory showing.

The mineral production makes a very favorable showing for the same year, namely: iron ore, 9,500,000 tons; copper, 20,300 tons; coal, 55,000,000 tons; petroleum, 860,000,000 gallons. As for gold and silver, one-half of the world's supply came from this country. Of all the mining industries of the world, this country represents thirty-six per cent. Great Britain comes next and represents thirty-three per cent. During the ten years ending with 1880 the United States coined nearly one-fourth of the gold and one-sixth of the silver turned out by all the mints of the world.

The shipment of American fresh beef to England began in 1875, and has become a great branch of commerce; but for the most part, American meats are exported cured or cooked. Pork is salted and the hams smoked, but the beef is cooked and then canned. This industry has its chief center in Chicago, the central point for cattle shipments from the whole West. In 1880 the meat supply of the country was reported thus: cattle slaughtered, 5,600,000; sheep slaughtered, 12,666,000; hogs, 14,480,000, making the following tons of meat: beef, 2,100,000; mutton, 424,100; pork, 1,291,560. It is estimated that the American people, who are the best fed of all the peoples of the earth, consume on an average 125 pounds of meat per inhabitant a year. The total production is 3,815,660; the total home consumption is 2,740,000 tons, leaving 1,076,000 tons for export.

Turning now to railroads, it may be observed, upon the threshold, that the first railroad charter was given in this country to the Mohawk and Hudson River Company, the parent of the New York Central trunk line of the Vanderbilt combination and monopoly. The first railroad in the land was built to transport from Quincy the granite used in the erection of Bunker Hill monument. That was in 1827. It was a horse railroad, originally. The first spadeful of dirt in the grading of the Baltimore and Ohio railroad was thrown up, with great ceremony, July 4, 1824, by Charles Carroll of Carrollton, who proved to be the last survivor of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. The mileage of railroads in the country is constantly increasing, and is now about 110,000 miles. The increase during the last decade was 41,883 miles, or more than that of all Europe combined, and an average of twelve miles a day. It is a moderate estimate to say that during the first two years of the current decade the increase was 10,000. During the last decade many railroads became bankrupt, the total number being 128, and their aggregate mileage, 13,120, representing a cost of about $1,150,000,000.

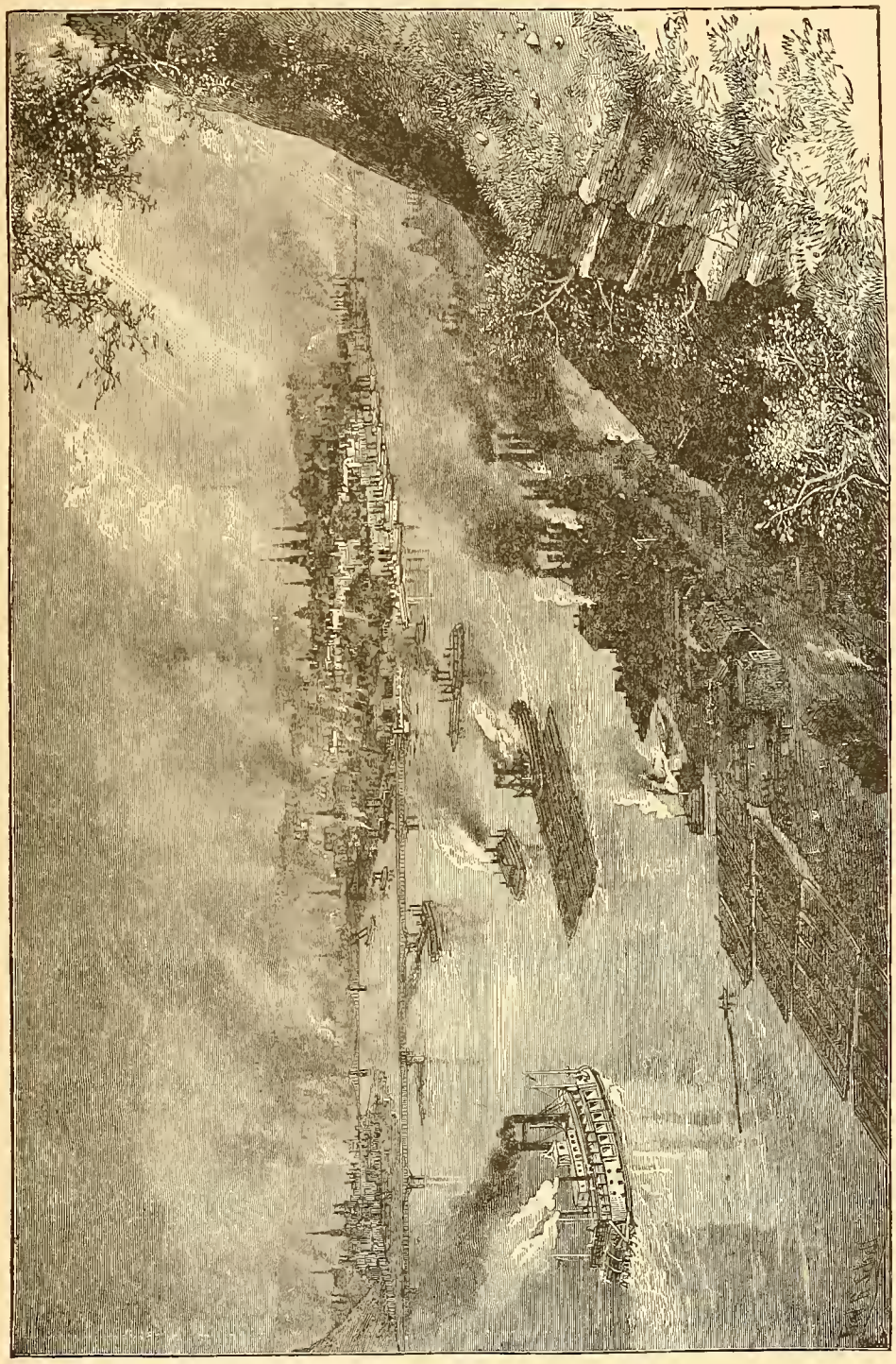
Since the more prosperous times which followed the resumption of specie payments (1879) the stock and bonds of these roads have greatly increased in value. The total cost of the railroads built up to 1880 were $5,000,000,000. Many of the roads built have penetrated the prairies in advance of home-seeking enterprises, and the locomotive has been "the voice of one crying in the wilderness." The shipping interest has steadily declined ever since 1860, except as regards shipping on the lakes and great rivers, and even there, especially on the rivers, rail competition has been depressing, and often absolutely destructive. The total traffic of the country for 1880 was 340,000,000 tons, of which 210,000,000 went by railways, 80,000,000 by inland water; 34,000,000 tons by coast traffic, and the remainder, 16,000,000, is set down as "entirely by sea."

An important branch of business, one interwoven with every industry and all sections of the country, is insurance. The first American insurance was marine. It was inaugurated at Philadelphia by John Copson in 1721. Fire insurance dates from 1752. Benjamin Franklin was the President of the first company. Its headquarters were Philadelphia. That corporation was organized on the mutual plan and is still in existence. Marine insurance did not really flourish until the latter half of the eighteenth century. Philadelphia also took the lead in life insurance. Franklin was prominent in its promotion. It began business in 1769. That was confined to Episcopal clergymen. The first general life insurance company was the Philadelphia of 1812. For a long time there was a superstitious prejudice against all insurance, as resistance to the will of Providence. Insurance against accident dates from 1864, and was started at Hartford, Connecticut, then and now specially devoted to insurance.

The banking system of the United States rests upon a solid foundation, and no country can boast so convenient and complete a medium of exchange as this country. The history and present condition of American money will serve to conclude this industrial survey of America.

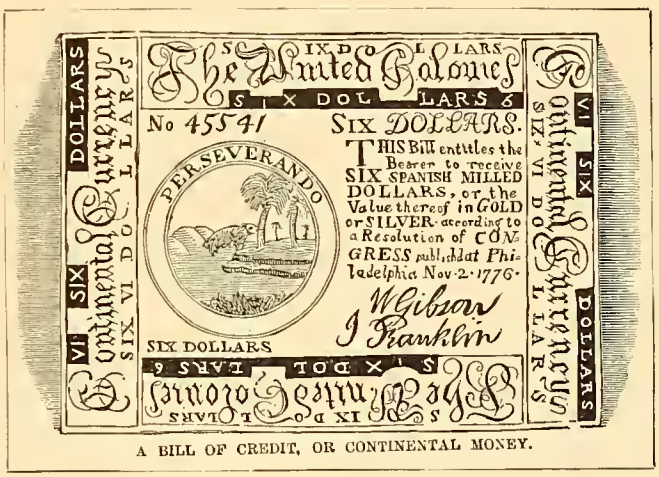
Alexander Hamilton has many claims to the perpetual gratitude of the American people, but his chief claim is the service he rendered in organizing the national treasury and establishing American finances upon a substantial basis. The present monetary system of this country is, in its fundamental principle, whatever may be said of its details, Hamiltonian.

The year 1690 witnessed the establishment of the first American newspaper, the first paper-mill and the issue of the first paper money. The colony of Massachusetts issued bills of credit to the amount of £40,000 in payment for an expedition to Quebec. Pennsylvania issued £45,000 of paper money in 1722, and Maryland followed the same example in 1773, greatly to its disadvantage Paper money is so easily made that it is very difficult to prevent an over-issue. In the Revolutionary War the Continental Congress put so much paper money in circulation that it depreciated and finally became worthless. During the latter part of the Revolutionary War the system of banks and bank notes was inaugurated. The first experiment was tried in Philadelphia under Congressional auspices. The Bank of Pennsylvania was chartered early in 1780, the Bank of North America, also a Philadelphia institution, was started early in 1782, and proved of great usefulness. It is still in existence, changed into a national bank. Others followed and gradually filled the land with bank-notes. Every considerable town had its bank with its bills redeemable in coin on demand. For the greater part of its existence this republic has done business upon a bank-note basis,



PITTSBURGH, THE CHIEF SEAT OF THE IRON MANUFACTURES.

no other medium of exchange being much employed. The system was very objectionable, for the reason that many bills were never redeemed at all, and entailed loss upon the holder. But no substitute was devised until military necessity, during the late civil war, compelled the government to issue notes of its own, a legal tender for all payments except duties on imports and interest on the public debt. These greenbacks, as they came to be called, were supplemented by a system of national banks, under which the holder of bank-notes is absolutely protected from loss, even if the bank itself should fail, and so for about twenty years the industries of this country have had as a medium of exchange the best system of paper money the world has ever seen. Since 1879 all this paper money has been equal in purchasing power to its face in coin. Industrial stability and prosperity demands monetary stability and a convenient medium of exchange.



A BILL OF CREDIT, OR CONTINENTAL MONEY.

The outlook for the material thrift of America, from whatever point viewed, is most encouraging.

The record of American art is brief. In the long list of famous painters the first American name is John S. Copley, a historical painter, born in Boston in 1737. His work attracted attention in England as early as 1760. The greater part of his life was spent in London, where he died at the age of seventy-eight. Benjamin West, a Pennsylvania Quaker, is better known. He was born in 1738, and studied his profession in Rome, the first American painter enrolled as a student in the Italian school. In 1792 he was elected to succeed Sir Joshua Reynolds as president of the Royal Academy, London. In his lifetime West was ranked among the foremost artists of all time, but his posthumous reputation is somewhat less conspicuous. Gilbert C. Stuart, a native of Rhode Island, born in 1756, was a great portrait painter. He painted three portraits of Washington, and the standard portraits of many of the eminent men of that period have came down to us from his easel. Stuart died in Boston in 1828.

John Trumbull of Connecticut, was born in 1756. He was the son of Governor Trumbull, "Uncle Jonathan." Many of his paintings are commemorative of American independence and the struggle through which it was achieved. Trumbull did much for art in connection with his *alma mater*, Yale College. He died in 1843. In 1777 Edward G. Malbone first saw the light of day. This famous miniature painter was a native of Newport, Rhode Island. As a colorist he was especially excellent. He died at the early age of thirty. Another name is conspicuous in the annals of American art, Washington Allston, a native of South Carolina, where he was born in 1779. Allston was a charming poet and a brilliant artist. He was most at home in delineating biblical scenes. Allston died in 1843. He deserves special consideration as a happy blending of art and literature. His manhood home was in Cambridge, and he was a conspicuous illustration of "Boston culture." Among modern painters of fame on both sides of the Atlantic may be mentioned Church, Beard, Hart, Healy, Bierstadt, Shirlaw, Dyer, Hope.

In sculpture, Hiram Powers and W. W. Story, both New Englanders long resident in Rome, are unsurpassed in the use of the chisel. Powers was born in Vermont in 1805. His "Greek Slave," finished at Rome in 1843, secured for the sculptor a rank among the master workers in marble. Storey, a son of the great American jurist, Justice Story of the Supreme Bench, was born in Boston in 1819. He early took up his residence in Rome, where he did not fail to acquire recognition not only as a poet, but as an artist of rare accomplishments and power.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

CHAPTER LXXXIX.

ENGLISH LITERATURE AND AMERICA—FIRST AMERICAN AUTHOR—ELIOT AND HIS INDIAN BIBLE—FIRST AUTHORESS IN AMERICA—JOHN WOOLMAN—JONATHAN EDWARDS—COTTON MATHER—BENJAMIN FRANKLIN AND POOR RICHARD—REVOLUTIONARY LITERATURE—COMMON SENSE AND THE CRISIS—POETRY OF THE PERIOD—THE FEDERALIST—MADISON STATE PAPERS—A STERILE AGE—MINOR POEMS—POE AND DANA—COOPER AND HIS NOVELS—N. P. WILLIS AND G. P. MORRIS—"FANNY FORRESTER," MRS. SIGOURNEY AND MRS. WILLARD—WASHINGTON IRVING—JARED SPARKS—MARGARET FULLER AND R. W. EMERSON—KENT AND STORY—WEBSTER AND WORCESTER—THEOLOGICAL CONTROVERSY—GREAT AMERICAN HISTORIANS—THE SCIENTISTS—THE JOURNALISTS—THE GREAT POETS—AMERICAN HUMOR—HAWTHORNE AND OTHERS—THE NOTED WRITERS NOW AT THEIR DESKS—PULPIT LITERATURE.

ENGLISH literature, in the broad sense of the term, is something more than the literature of England, and includes the literary production of all the English-speaking peoples; but the writings of American authors form so important a branch of this greatest of all literatures that it may well be honored with a distinct classification.

The first literary effort in the English language in the new world, apart from mere reports, was a translation of Ovid's *Metamorphosis* by George Sandys, in 1621. Dryden was greatly pleased with the versification. Sandys was treasurer of the Virginia colony. Several publications designed to stimulate emigration from England to America appeared about that time, penned by colonists, but they had no special merits. The first printing press in the colonies was set up in the house of the president of Harvard College in 1639, and the first book printed in this country was the "Bay Psalm Book" (1640) prepared for use in Puritan churches by John Eliot and others.

The first really great literary work in America was performed by Eliot in reducing the language spoken by the Indians of Massachusetts to writing. He not only made a translation of the Bible in the language of the Mohegans, but a grammar, besides translating several religious books of high repute in that day. Eliot's Bible was printed on the Harvard press in 1658-63, and was the first Bible printed in America.

The first strictly American authoress was Mrs. Anne Bradstreet, wife of Governor Bradstreet, of Massachusetts. She was born in 1612 and died in 1672. "The Tenth Muse" was an appellation bestowed upon her. From her the Danas, to be mentioned later, were descended. The most illustrious name in the literary annals of America in the seventeenth century was Mather, father, son, grandson and great grandson, the third, Cotton Mather, being the chief. He was a man of many wonderful gifts. His *Magnalia Christi Americana* was a historical and biographical memorial of primitive New England, a book showing fine powers of characterization. But

he was greater as a man and a preacher than he was as an author. His account of witchcraft in Salem and Boston has proved a monument to his own dishonor, giving him more prominence in that disreputable episode of colonial history than he actually deserves.

The first American book of real genius came from the pen of a native of New Jersey and a member of the Society of Friends, to whom Charles Lamb paid this high tribute, "Get the writings of John Woolman by heart, and learn to love the early Quaker." The best of his writings is his Journal. Woolman was born in Burlington County, New Jersey, 1720, and died of the small-pox, in York, England, whither he had gone to attend a quarterly meeting, in 1772. Contemporaneous with Woolman, equally religious, but otherwise widely different from him, was Jonathan Edwards, who was born in East Windsor, Connecticut, 1703, and died, also of small-pox, at Princeton, New Jersey, 1758. Edwards was at the time of his death president of Princeton College. He was a metaphysician of wondrous powers of logic. Accepting the dogmas of Calvinism, he carried them to their logical conclusions with a clearness and thoroughness baffling refutation, if only his premises are conceded. His treatise on the *Will* and the *History of Redemption* are still standard text-books of orthodoxy. "The English Calvinists," wrote Sir James Mackintosh, "have written nothing to be put in competition with it" [the treatise on the *Will*] Jonathan Edwards is the only colonial author to achieve and maintain a place among the great authors of the world.

JONATHAN EDWARDS.

The next name of note in American literature is Benjamin Franklin. He too attracted attention upon the other side of the Atlantic, and was accorded rank among the best intellects of the period. But his fame rested upon his discoveries in science rather than upon his merits as a writer. His pen was plodding and commonplace. He wrote much and wisely, with good taste, but not brilliantly. Born at Boston in 1706, his manhood home was in Philadelphia, where he died in 1790. He was a man of science and politics, writing with a view to practical results. With theology he never meddled. Without any polemical disposition, he was purely and uniformly secular. Many of his wise sayings have passed into proverbs. For many years he published "Poor Richard's Almanac," an annual so full of homely wisdom as to acquire a great hold upon the public. For a long time he published and edited the Pennsylvania *Gazette*, the most influential journal in all the colonies. He did more by his pen for the promotion of colonial union and resistance to English despotism than any other man. His Autobiography is the best of his literary remains, and will always be valued as a storehouse of history and sage observations. Mirabeau paid this deserved tribute to Franklin: "Antiquity would have raised altars to this mighty genius, who, to the advantage of mankind, compassing in his mind the heavens and the earth, was able to restrain alike thunderbolts and tyrants."

THOMAS PAINE.

Franklin's great reputation made him especially available as a representative of the colonies at the British court. If the authorities were contemptuous of the colonies as such, they would surely listen to the great Dr. Franklin on any subject. For this reason he was much abroad, both in England before

the conflict actually begun, and in France during the progress of the war. While in England he formed the acquaintance of Thomas Paine, the son of a Quaker, a corset-maker, a sailor and a revenue official in a small way. The quick eye of Franklin saw the genius of the man, and advised him to cast his fortunes with the American colonies. He emigrated to this country in 1774, in the forty-fourth year of his age. He had shown facility with the pen in a pamphlet criticising the service with which he was connected. That pamphlet cost him his office and served to introduce him to Franklin. In this country he wrote several publications of some merit. His claim to recognition in this connection rests upon the series of short papers issued at irregular intervals during the Revolutionary War, entitled *Common Sense* and the *Crisis*. The appeals of the former series for union and republicanism produced a great effect upon the thought and purpose of the people. The *Crisis* served to stimulate the patriotism of the country, and was almost universally read, both by the fireside and in the camp. They were issued as the cause of independence required. Two subsequent works from the same pen, *The Rights of Man*, and the *Age of Reason*, can hardly be classed as a part of American literature. Paine died at Rochelle, New York, in 1809.

Thomas Jefferson wrote much, as the posthumous publication of his writings attest, and wrote admirably well, but his life was one of activity, and apart from state papers (including the Declaration of Independence) he never contributed much to the current thought of his day. The Revolutionary period may be said to have had its laureate, Philip Freneau, a thorough Frenchman in style and temperament, having that honor. He was born in New York, 1753, and perished in a New Jersey snowstorm at the age of eighty-two. Joel Barlow, of Connecticut, attempted to be a poet, and for a time passed for one, but he was long since pronounced a failure.

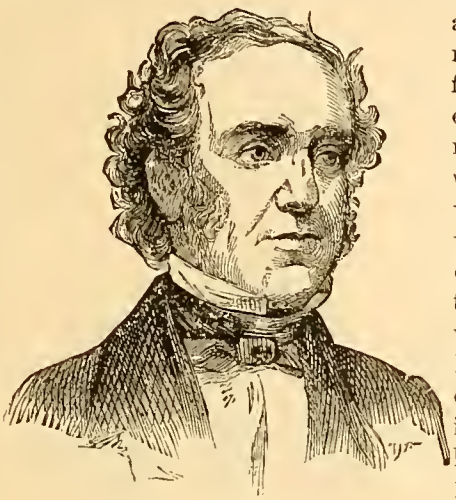
The *Federalist*, which was for the most part the joint product of Alexander Hamilton, John Jay and James Madison, consists of a series of essays in advocacy of the Constitution of the United States. It did much to secure its adoption, and will always be of value in its interpretation to statesmen and jurists. Madison also rendered the country highly important literary service by making extended reports of the debates in the convention which framed the constitution. Those reports, known as the "Madison State Papers," were not made public until after the distinguished reporter's death.

There was a long period of barrenness in American literature. A few theologians rose to eminence as writers on subjects connected with their profession, notably Samuel Hopkins, Dr. Emmons, Dr. Bellamy and Moses Stuart, but none of them could at all compare with Jonathan Edwards, or be said to have contributed any really new element to theological thought. Their published works are merely elaborately drawn out doctrinal sermons. They never passed beyond the range of professional text-books.

Edgar A. Poe was really the pioneer poet of America, and Washington Irving the pioneer of American prose, as a recognized feature of the *belle lettres* literature of the English language. Before their day were composed a few stray bits of poetry which are justly treasured and widely read. These are "The Star Spangled Banner," by Francis S. Key; "The Old Oaken Bucket," by Samuel Woodworth; and "The Culprit Fay," by Joseph Rodman Drake. The "Thanatopsis" of Bryant belonged to that period, but the subsequent poetry of the same writer gives him rank with the later poets. During this period of comparative sterility, one branch of knowledge received exceptional attention, ornithology. Alexander Wilson, a native of Scotland, and John James Audubon, a Louisianian (1780-1851) made a thorough study of American birds, and duly recorded their observations. Poe was born in 1811 and died in 1849. His was an unhappy lot, a life-struggle against poverty and all the ills attendant upon intemperance. The less said of his private life the better for him. His "Bells," "Raven," and other poems are familiar. He is one of the household poets, open to criticism, but attractive to the great body of readers.

EDGAR A. POE.

Contemporaneous with Poe may be classed Fitz Greene Halleck, who was born in Guilford, Connecticut in 1795, and died there in 1867. His life was a pleasant episode. He was admired and courted for his personal charms no less than for his exquisite genius. He was not a voluminous writer. Another contemporary was R. H. Dana, the elder, born in 1787 and living until 1879. Mr. Dana belonged to the aristocracy of Boston, and wrote with elegance not only poetry but short stories and critiques. He, even more than Poe, might be called the shadow



FITZ GREENE HALLECK.

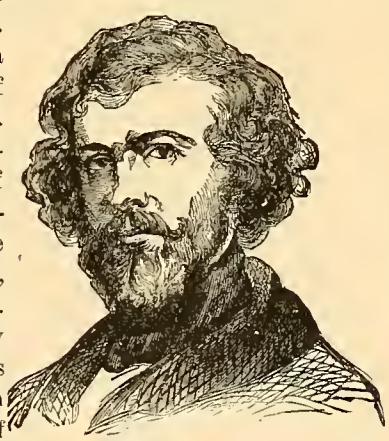
RICHARD H. DANA.

cast before by coming American literature. His *Paul Felton* is a powerful romance, and his lectures on Shakspeare are in refreshing contrast with the inane lectures on the same subject by John Quincy Adams, delivered when that great statesman was a college professor. Dana lived to see the bud of his own promise blossom in others.

James Fenimore Cooper was the first great novelist of America and the first American writer after Franklin and Edwards, to gain European recognition. He was a truly national novelist, for he wrote of life on the frontier, of Indians, trappers and the sea. He cast a halo about the Indian character and American scenery. Cooper lived in Cooperstown, New York. He was born in 1789 and survived until 1851. On much the same plane stands Miss Sedgwick (1789-1867), a novelist who enjoyed a wide popularity in her day. Neither are much read at the present time.

JAMES FENIMORE COOPER.

In his day N. P. Willis was a noted member of the literary guild. He was a journalist and poet of the more esthetic character. He was born in 1806, and died in 1867. During his early manhood he was a great pet with a large class of readers. His best work was done on the *New York Mirror* and the *Home Journal*, two fireside weeklies of large circulation. He wrote nothing which deserves to be mentioned specifically. His friend, George P. Morris, wrote less and generally not as well; but his "Woodman, Spare that Tree," is a gem of rare beauty.



N. P. WILLIS.

Mrs. Sigourney also stood very high as a poetess in her time. She was a prolific writer of verse, being often called upon to grace special occasions. She was born in Connecticut in 1791 and died in 1865.

Washington Irving is the supreme landmark in American prose. He was born in New York in 1783 and died in 1859. He begun his literary career as the anonymous writer of a comic history of New York under the primitive Dutch. It was a very brilliant success. That was in 1809, when he was young and rich. He wrote simply as a recreation.

WASHINGTON IRVING.

But about ten years later his fortune disappeared, and he took up literature as his life-work. Others had made it a trade: he took it up as a profession. He was not a literary artisan, but an artist. His sketches and tales attracted the attention of Sir Walter Scott and others in the old world. It was then admitted by the British critics that perhaps some good thing could come out of republican America. He wrote several elaborate histories, his Columbus being the first and his Washington the last. His fine style could invest any subject with interest. Irving was a very fortunate man in his temperament. For many years he was the most popular man in the country, always praised and never dazed by adulation.

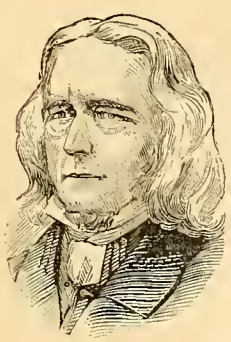
As a historian Irving lacked the critical faculty which is necessary to the very highest merit in that department of literature. But America can justly boast of her contributions to historical literature. Several names present themselves in this connection. Jared Sparks (1794-1866) did a great work in bringing out twenty-five volumes of American biography. Several of the volumes were from his own pen and all were under his editorial supervision. Sparks was followed by John G. Palfrey and several minor historians. But it was not until a later period that the great galaxy of American historians appeared in the heavens.

Two other names come to the front at this point of our sketch, Margaret Fuller and Ralph Waldo Emerson. The former was born in 1810 and was lost at sea in 1850, while the latter, born in 1803, died in 1882. In life they were warm friends. Margaret Fuller (for the Marchioness D'Ossoli is best known by her maiden name) was a brilliant critic. Her young life had in it the promise of a great future. She is remembered more for what she was than for what she had already accomplished. Emerson combines the philosopher, poet and critic. Educated for the ministry, he was adapted rather to the life of a student untrammeled by any professional obligations. He did a very great work in elevating the general tone of American literature. Writers and readers were alike lifted by his genius into higher ranges of thought. Without ridiculing or condemning the vapid productions which held the field in his younger days, he set about the cultivation of better ideals and tastes. Therein was his chief work. Emerson may be said to have not only introduced Thomas Carlyle to America, but to his own countrymen. He long ago won recognition the world over as one of the great thinkers of our age.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

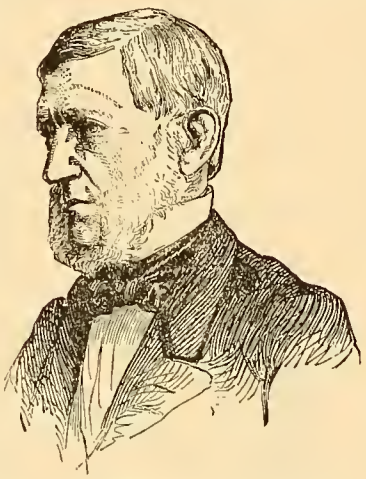
Chancellor Kent of, New York (1763-1847), deserves prominent mention for his great legal work on American law. He is the Blackstone of the United States. His commentaries have been a text book with law students for fifty years and have lost none of their value. Judge Story, of the Supreme bench of the United States (1779-1845), produced a work on the constitution which is an indispensable manual for every statesman in this republic. A good many valuable legal treatises have been produced in this country, but Kent and Story are the only really great and immortal names in the annals of American law literature. The name of Abbott deserves honorable mention. There were two brothers of note, Jacob, the author of the "Rollo Books" and a long list of works designed to instruct and entertain the young, and John S. C. Abbott, two years younger, whose histories of Napoleon and other famous characters were received with favor.

NOAH WEBSTER.



J. E. WORCESTER.

In lexicography America has two great names, Noah Webster (1758-1843) and Joseph E. Worcester (1784-1865). Either is good authority on both spelling and pronunciation, and that not only in America, but wherever the English language is spoken. Webster began as the mere maker of a spelling-book for the school-room. He was a graduate of Yale College, and so, too, was Worcester. They were independent workers in the great field of lexicography, but not rivals in any invidious sense. Webster's great work first appeared in 1828, Worcester's in 1860. Each has passed through numerous editions, and been improved and enlarged many times. America has brought the art of preparing text-books for the school-room to a degree of perfection unknown in the old world, and in that line Noah Webster was the pioneer. He may be called the father of American school books.



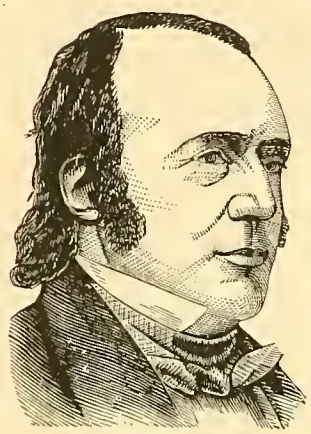
GEORGE BANCROFT.

In the first half of this century there arose a tempestuous controversy in Massachusetts over the doctrine of the trinity. On one side were Prof. Moses Stuart and his compeers of Andover Theological Seminary, and the orthodox ministers of the Congregational church generally, and on the other side were Dr. Channing (1870-1842) and the Wares, Henry and William, with their Unitarian sympathizers. This controversy was mainly carried on in the pulpit and through the journalistic press, but some of the literature forms a part of a great intellectual contest. The most illustrious product of it, however, was Theodore Parker, who was so very liberal that even Unitarians could not tolerate him. Parker's works are not widely read, but they have been highly praised for their literary merits.

JOHN LOTHROP MOTLEY.

The historians of America besides those already named, and who are really second to none in any land or time, are Prescott, Hildreth, Bancroft, Motley and Parkman, all natives of Massachusetts and graduates of Harvard College. Wm. H. Prescott

was born in 1796 and died in 1850. He wrote the history of Ferdinand and Isabella, also of the conquests of Mexico and Peru. They were at once recognized as the productions of a genius. Richard Hildreth (1807-1865) was the author of an elaborate history of the United States, which has only one rival, and that is the great work of George Bancroft. Mr. Bancroft was born in 1800 and still survives. He was Secretary of the Navy in 1845, and he held several other high positions under the government. Fifty years ago he began his history of the United States, and a new volume has been hailed from time to time as an event. His style, however, is heavy and his volumes dull. John Lothrop Motley was born in 1814 and died in 1877. He devoted his life to the *Rise and Fall of the Dutch Republic*, and in that field never had a peer. His style is elegant and fascinating. Mr. Motley wrote several distinct yet kindred volumes. He represented the United States at the Austrian court under Mr. Lincoln, and at the English court under a part of General Grant's first term. In diplomacy he was not a success, but in history he won the admiration of Europe and America. Francis Parkman was born 1823. The field which he has cultivated with a success which gives him rank with Prescott and Motley, is New France and the early settlement of the West.



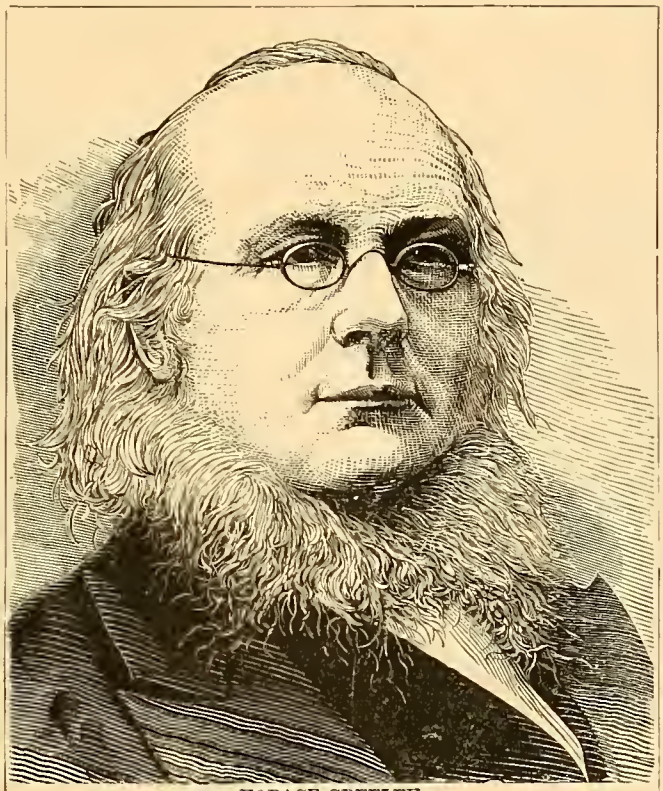
LOUIS AGASSIZ.

In scientific literature this country can boast several names of note, Silliman, Hitchcock, Agassiz, Dana, Winchell, Gray, Bache, Maury and Draper, besides those early lights of America, Dr. Franklin and Count Rumford (1753-1814). The latter was a great natural philosopher who did much good work in his department of thought, but being a Tory in the Revolutionary period, he had to leave the country and was almost lost sight of. Of these latter-day scientists, Benjamin Silliman (1779-1864) is best known as the founder of Silliman's *Journal of Science and Art*. He was professor of chemistry, mineralogy and geology in Yale College from 1804 to 1855. Edward Hitchcock was born in 1793 and died in 1864. He was professor of geology in Amherst College for many years, and later President of that institution. He was among the greatest geologists of his day. Louis Agassiz was a native of Switzerland, born in 1807. He came to this country in his early manhood and became connected with Harvard College. Zoology was the branch of science to which his life was devoted. He died in 1873. James D. Dana, born in 1813, ranks very high as a geologist and mineralogist. His writings gave him a high reputation among scientists. Prof. Alexander Winchell, born in 1824, may be said to have brought geology down to date. The venerable Professor Asa Gray, of Harvard College, has long ranked as the foremost botanist in America. He has written much upon the flora of this country. He was born in 1810. Alexander D. Bache, who was born in 1806 and died in 1867, was a grandson of Benjamin Franklin. His great achievement was the superintendence of the United States Coast Survey, which position he held for nearly a quarter of a century. His annual reports on the Coast Survey constitute a treasury of scientific information. Commodore Maury, who was born in Virginia in 1806, was an eminent physicist. He is known the world over by his "Wind and Current Charts," and his "Physical Geography of the Sea." Dr. J. W. Draper (1811-1881) is equally famous as a scientist and a historian. He was master of a remarkably elegant style of composition and profoundly learned in natural history. He was a native of England, but was educated in this country. For many years Dr. Draper was professor of chemistry in the University of New York.

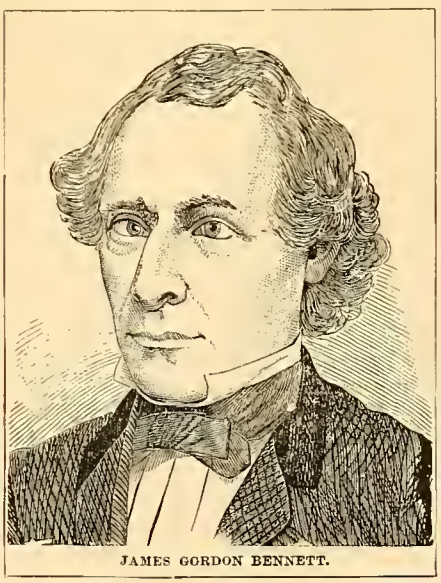
DR. J. W. DRAPER.

In the department of journalism America can boast some great names besides Franklin. The highest rank is now generally given to Horace Greeley,

the founder of the New York *Tribune*. Mr. Greeley was a native of New Hampshire, born in 1811. His ideal of a newspaper was one which should exert a great and wholesome influence. The more typical journalist of his time was James Gordon Bennett (1800-1872) whose only ambition was to furnish the latest and fullest news. Herein his journal, the New York *Herald*, became the model of journalistic enterprise. The American press, as a whole, is more enterprising and versatile than that of any other country, and the American people devote more attention to newspaper reading than do any other people. The absolute freedom of the American press has favored the enlargement of its sphere. Closely allied to the newspaper press, yet not by any means confined to it, was Bayard Taylor. This remarkable man began his career of eminence as a traveler. He went from land to land, contributing his observations to the New York *Tribune* and diffusing knowledge among the people, becoming one of the best known of our countrymen. Later he achieved success as a novelist, and latest as a poet. At the time of his death he was the representative of the United States at the German capital. Born in 1825, he died in 1878. His translation of *Faust* is the most enduring monument of his genius.



HORACE GREELEY.



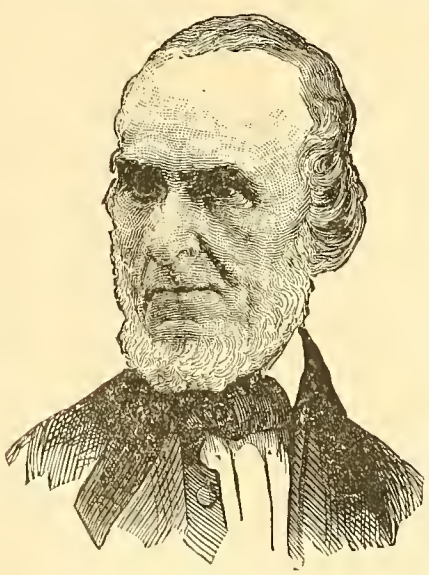
JAMES GORDON BENNETT.

American literature has a galaxy of poets worthy to be classed among the classics of the world, Longfellow, Bryant, Whittier, Lowell and Holmes. The first and second have ceased from their labors, and the three others cannot long survive. Mr. Longfellow, born in 1807, died early in 1882, and was mourned by the nation as the laureate of the people. Descended from an old New England family, nurtured in luxury, and cultured to the last degree, he seemed the very impersonation of all which is tender, beautiful and pure. There was in his genius no suggestion of the organ, but rather of the piano. The merest touch brought a melodious response. Mr. Bryant, who was born in 1794 and died in 1878, retained his mental faculties to the last, and did some of his best work in the winter of his days. But his masterpiece, *Thanatopsis*, was written when he was only eighteen years of age. William Cullen Bryant was the poet of nature in her more tranquil moods. John G. Whittier, born in 1807, spent his early days on a farm, amid the calm of a Quaker household, with no encouragements to the cultivation of poetry. They belong, however, to much the same school of poets, being exquisitely refined and artistic in every touch and tone. Whittier wrote much in

the interest of the anti-slavery cause, but he is none the less a notable example of the highest

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.

art in poetry. James R. Lowell, now American minister at the English court, became first known as a writer of grotesque and humorous poetry in the Yankee dialect. That was at the time of the Mexican war. He signed himself as "Hosea Biglow." Those papers were strongly anti-slavery in sentiment and gave the author great reputation as a humorist. No American humor ever received such high praise in England as the "Biglow Papers." But Lowell is something more than a humorist. His poetry is beautiful and pathetic. In prose he excels as a critic. His essays, published originally in the *North American Review*, on literary topics, attracted wide and admiring attention in England. As an essayist he has only one equal in the country, E. P. Whipple, of Boston. Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes combines prose and poetry

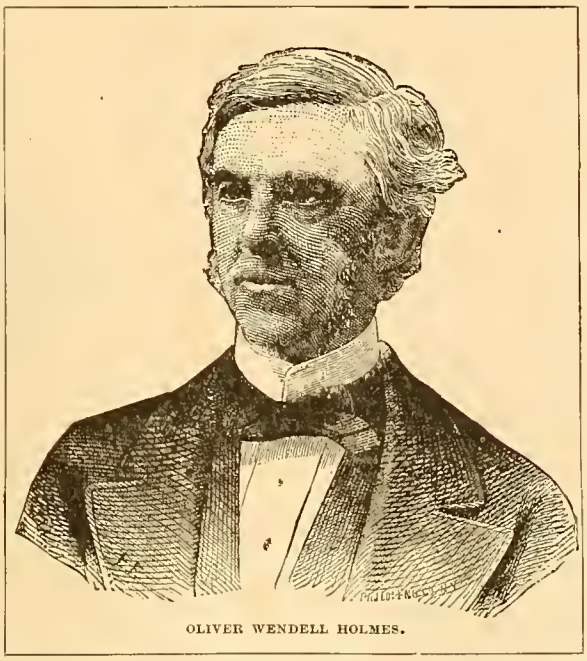


J. G. WHITTIER.

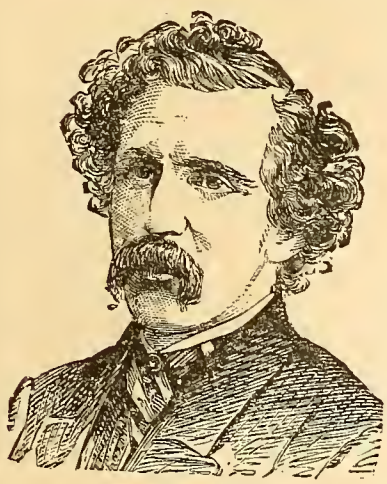
WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

While Longfellow and Whittier never venture outside of verse, and Lowell only entered the smaller field of criticism, Dr. Holmes boldly launched out upon the broad ocean of romance and the exceedingly perilous gulf of professional wit. His *Elsie Venner* is an admirable story, and his *Autocrat of the Breakfast Table* is a well of wit untainted by any coarseness. Holmes has the greatest versatility of genius of any American author. This prince of magazinists was born in 1809. What Goethe and Schiller and their compeers were to the court of Weimar, are Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell and Holmes to the literary capital of America, Boston, and its immediate vicinity. There are brilliant and somewhat illustrious representatives of the younger and more active school, or set of magazinists, but their glory fades and pales in comparison with the poets who have lifted American literature from the dust of contempt and made this country the companion in literary renown of Greece, England, Germany and France.

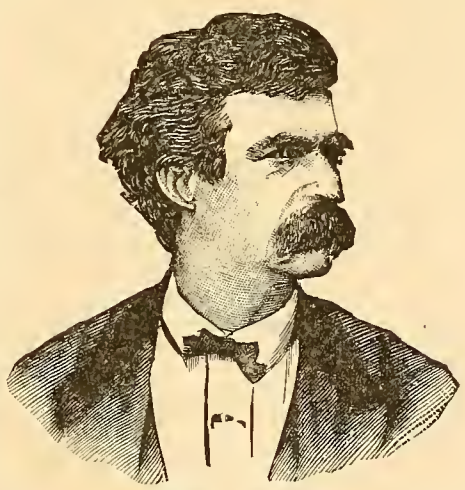


OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.



CHARLES F. BROWNE.

On a recent occasion an English lecturer in this country inquired, "Whydo all American journalists try to be humorists?" As compared with any other country American writers with reputations to make are especially given to humor. Some attempts in this line have met with signal success. The Mrs. Partington and her son Ike, of Benjamin P. Shillaber, dates from 1847. Now and then a new joke would come out and gain wide circulation until at length "Mrs. Partington" has come to have a distinct place in the thought of the reading public. John G. Saxe, a poet of rare gifts, was so very humorously inclined that his verse sparkles with laughter-provoking wit. C. F. Browne, as "Artemus Ward," may be set down as the first of our native humorists who aimed solely at the ludicrous. He has no underlying purpose. His preposterous spelling and grotesque conceits were more highly appreciated after his death (1867) than during his life. "Mark Twain," Mr. Clemens, began as a journalist upon the Pacific Coast. But ever since his "Innocents Abroad" (1868) he has been a resident of the East, and has been recognized as the greatest of American humorists. Under his cap and bells may be generally discerned an earnest and commendable purpose. He has been sharply criticised by English critics, but others again do not scruple to place him at the head of contemporaneous humor not only, but to claim for him rank among the immortal wits.



SAMUEL L. CLEMENS.

If Cooper was the first American novelist to attract attention abroad, Nathaniel Hawthorne was the first to gain recognition as a great genius. Born in 1804, he was not swift to make his mark upon literature. His *Twice-told Tales* were well received, but it was between the years of 1846 and 1852 that he achieved greatness. His *Scarlet Letter* and other long stories are among the few novels destined to be read and admired by future generations. Mr. Hawthorne died in 1864. His son, Julian, has written some good but not great novels.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

Of a very different type is J. T. Headley, who was born in 1814. He was educated for the ministry, but his taste took him to literature as a profession. In word-painting he has a most admirable facility. *Napoleon and His Marshals*, published in 1840, was an exceedingly popular book, and so too, was *Washington and His Generals*. Both continue to be in considerable demand, especially the former. Mr. Headley met a popular demand very creditably. His younger brother, P. C. Headley, is the author of several hardly less well received publications.

George William Curtis (1824) is a rare combination of high talent. During the first half of the fifth decade of this century, he published several books which excited high hopes of a brilliant future. The best of these was his *Potiphar Papers*. But he abandoned the field of book-making and devoted himself to the writing of brief essays on current subjects and to lecturing. He is a fascinating speaker and a charming writer. Through the Easy Chair of *Harper's Monthly* and the Editorial department of *Harper's Weekly* he has wrought a great work in educating the public mind on political, social and other subjects. Mr. Curtis has been and is a great lever for the elevation of public sentiment.

J. G. Holland, whose sudden death in the fall of 1881 was felt to be a national calamity, was one of the few writers who steadily grew in power and favor. Born in 1819, he first won renown as the author of the immensely popular *Timothy Titcomb Letters*. A few years later the moralizer developed into a poet (*Bitter Sweet*). Still a few years later, and Dr. Holland entered the list as a novelist, and won distinction. His *Arthur Bonnicastle* was well received by the most critical readers and very popular with the many.

J. G. HOLLAND.

Walt Whitman is one of America's most remarkable men of letters. *The Edinburgh Review* and a very considerable class of British critics, pronounce him our greatest poet. Many fail to see any poetry and much indecency in his *Leaves of Grass*. He is as defiant of rules as Carlyle. Many of his leaves should have been left out, while some of them are very tender and will always be green. Whitman was born in 1819.

The most widely read book ever produced in America is *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, by Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe. It was accepted as a faithful pen picture of African slavery in America, and as such, read with the utmost avidity. It was published in 1852, and had a success absolutely unparalleled in all the annals of literature. Millions of copies were sold in America and England alone, and translations speedily made of it into every language of the world which might be said to possess a popular literature. Mrs. Stowe is the daughter of the great preacher, Lyman Beecher, and sister of the still greater pulpit orator, Henry Ward Beecher. She has written several other stories of considerable merit, but her first stands upon an elevation of its own.

There are several American authors of great promise now in the midst of their career, Bret Harte and Joaquin Miller in poetry, J. D. Howells and Henry James, Jr., in romance, who have done much

and have in them the promise of many years of usefulness.

Mr. Harte combines humor and pathos. He can strike with deft fingers the chords of sentiment, or he can make the waters dance with ripples of laughter. His tribute to Dickens and his "Heathen Chinee" are conspicuous examples of his splendid powers. Joaquin Miller is nearly always the same, whether he writes prose or poetry, cuts an intaglio or rears a monument, his mood and attitude is ever that of a pre-Raphaelite, more plaintive than joyous. Miller was never popular in America, but attained an enviable reputation in England. Mr. Howells has written several stories of great fascination, and he is still in the midst of his labors. He shares with Henry James, Jr., the honor of being the most conspicuous representative of the latest mode in romance. They are exquisitely esthetic and are doing much to cultivate in the public mind a taste for the purely artistic in literature.

In no other part of Christendom is the pulpit so important a factor and potent an influence as in America, for here sermons, rather than rites, are the main reliance of the clergy for the accomplishment of religious purposes. The success of a discourse cannot be measured by a distinctively literary standard, and without implying any comparative disparagement of others, it is proper in this connection to refer specifically to the three American preachers whose every sermon, as soon as preached, becomes a part of current literature. These three pulpiteers are—Henry Ward Beecher, T. De Witt Talmage, and David Swing.

Mr. Beecher was born in 1813, and is one of several brothers who have attained eminence in the clerical profession. His collegiate career gave no promise of a great future. His first pastorate was in a rural town in Indiana. He soon removed to the capital of that state, where he built up a flourishing church and delivered a course of lectures to the young which were published and attained a wide circulation. Over thirty years ago a small church of anti-slavery proclivities was organized in Brooklyn as an offshoot from the Church of the Pilgrims, Rev. Dr. Storrs pastor, and to that new church, called Plymouth, Mr. Beecher was called. He accepted the call, and soon found himself the most popular preacher on the continent. The history of Plymouth Church is a prominent chapter in the history of this country, more especially of the anti-slavery movement. For many years his sermons have been reported in full and published regularly. He has written several books, including a novel of some small merit, but his fame rests upon his pulpit efforts. He is still in full vigor, his discourses betraying no senility.

Mr. Talmage was born in 1832. His first settlement was in Belleville, New Jersey, thence to Syracuse, New York, Philadelphia, and finally to Brooklyn, where he became and remains pastor of the Brooklyn Tabernacle. He has immense audiences always, and his sermons are at once published in no less than twenty-three newspapers, exclusive of the daily press. These papers may be said to gird the globe, issued as they are in New York, London, Melbourne, San Francisco, and other great cities of the English-speaking world.

The last name to be mentioned in this list is David Swing, a native of Ohio, but for many years a resident of Chicago. For ten years and more all of his sermons have been published in full, and his regular audience upon the Sabbath, large as it always is, is yet a mere handful as compared with the multitudes to whom he preaches through the Monday morning press. He is a poet who very rarely writes poetry, but whose every prose effort is melodious. The profound grief of the American people over the loss of President Garfield found its best expression in a dirge from the pen of this eminent preacher, and this chapter could have no more fitting close than these tender lines:

Now all ye flowers make room:
Hither we come in gloom
To make a mighty tomb,
  Sighing and weeping.
Grand was the life he led;
Wise was each word he said,
But with the noble dead
  We leave him sleeping.

Soft may his body rest
As on his mother's breast,
Whose love stands all confessed
  'Mid blinding tears;
But may his soul so white
Rise in triumphant flight,
And in God's land of light
  Spend endless years.

REFERENCE TABLES.

Embracing Miscellaneous Tables, Showing Contemporaneous History and Literature from B. C. 1500 to A. D. 1880; The Industries, Manufactures, Railroads, Food Supply, Gold and Silver Production, Capital, Wealth, Earnings and Legislatures, of the Countries of the World; The Financial, Political, Military and Naval History of the United States, from 1789 to the Present Time, inclusive. Also other Tables, forming an inexhaustible mine of Important Facts.

STATISTICS present facts in their most condensed, exact and convenient form.

It is neither exaggeration nor boasting to say that in the Reference Tables given herewith may be found the very quintessence of knowledge. Such is the nature of all tabular matter. The aim in this connection has been to group together such statistics as the broad title of the book itself called for, gleaned from many sources. Some good tables are as common as wise proverbs, while others again are covered by copyright. There are both classes in the following pages. Without going into useless details it is sufficient to say on this point that for its statistics THE WORLD, HISTORICAL AND ACTUAL, is under great obligation to "Gaskell's Compendium of Forms" and the three great statisticians, Michael G. Mulhall, F. S. S., John Nichol, LL.D., and General Francis A. Walker.

It will be observed that the historical and the actual are accorded about equal space, including in the latter the tables of events so recent as to belong really to the present. The several tables are a panoramic view of the past. Beginning with Egypt when it emerges from the sands of obscurity, the Hebrews when they were transformed from slaves to citizens of a nation having Jehovah for its king, and Greece with the founding of Thebes by Cadmus, all in the fifteenth century before the Christian era, the panorama moves on until the year 1880 is reached. In this broad field of nearly twenty-four hundred years, embracing all lands, it is believed that no great historical event, person or work has escaped attention. Each may be found, and be held in correlation to other events, persons or works. Literature has been given more prominence than war or any other feature for the reason that it alone is both historical and actual. A good book is instinct with a life which takes no note of time. Literature deserves the prominence given it, and so does America deserve the prominence given it in the series of modern tables, for, although not so much as known until the evening of the fifteenth century it is the heir of all Europe, rich in the inheritance of its best estate, divested, for the most part, of the incumberances of ancient wrongs and immemorial blunders.

Having taken a historical survey of the globe its present condition is presented in tables which are distinct and each complete in itself, but which form a grand unity. The whole world as it is passes before us, and of each country we may note its population, area, religion, government, capital, debt, standing army and navy, railways, commerce, manufactures, mining, agriculture, banking and money. Then follows a survey of the world from a somewhat different standpoint, with a view to ascertaining the industries, productions, manufactures, commerce, etc., of the world, each by itself. In one set of tables the country is foremost; in the other, the topic is given the preference. It is only by shifting the camera and taking several views that a complete photograph of an object can be obtained.

In the later part of the tables much space is devoted to American statistics, for which, certainly, no apology is needed. The recent completion of the tenth census renders the present a favorable time for the issuance of tabular information relating to the United States. The more important features of the census are herewith presented to the public. It will be nearly ten years before these tables will be superseded and moved from the ground floor of the actual to the attic of the historical.

TABLES OF ANCIENT LITERATURE AND HISTORY.

Table I. B. C. 1500 to B. C. 750. The World Before Rome. By Centuries.

NOTE.— *The following dates have been assigned to important events or traditions previous to* B. C. 1500:—

I. BIBLICAL ..... The Deluge, 2348 B. C. Birth of Abram, 1996; of Esau and Jacob, 1837. Joseph in Egypt, 1729–1635. Birth of Moses, 1571.

II. ASSYRIA AND EGYPT... Babel. Nimrod. Asshur, 2230. Babylon, 2200. Nineveh. Ninus. Semiramis, 2180. Menes, first Egyptian King, 2700. Egyptian Thebes founded, 2280. Hyksos in Egypt, 1802–1600.

III. GREECE ..... Foundation of Sicyon, 2088; of Argus (Inachus), 1856; of Athens (Cecrops), 1556; of Sparta (Lelex), 1516. Deucalion, 1503.

IV. PHŒNICIA ..... Foundation of Tyre and Sidon, 2750.

B. C.	EGYPT AND MANY LANDS.	PALESTINE.	LITERATURE.	GREECE.
1500	Rameses III., SESOSTRIS, or Ammon, 19th Egyptian Dynasty 1485	The Exodus 1491		Foundation of Thebes (Cadmus), 1493
				Dardanus 1480
		Deaths of MOSES, Aaron and Miriam, 1452-51		Danaus in Argos 1460
		JOSHUA divides Canaan 1445		
	PHARAOHS powerful, 1500–900			Foundation of Ilium 1425
		First Judge in Israel (Othniel) 1402		
1400		Ehud, second Judge 1394–1354		Eleusinian Mysteries 1383
			The Vedas.	
	Eglon, King of Moab.	Wars with Amalekites, Jebusites, Moabites.		War of Erectheus and Eumolpus.
			Book of Job. (Ewald.)	
				Foundation of Mycenæ 1344
		Ruth 1320	Sanchuniathon.	
				Perseus. Cyclopes.
1300		Wars with Philistines.	Mythical Hymnology (Linus) 1280	Pelops 1283
				Calydonian Chase (Atalanta).
		Barak and Deborah 1296–1256		Hercules.
	Assyria and Babylonia united 1250–772	Jael and Sisera 1296	Early Minstrelsy (Orpheus), 1260	MINOS in Crete 1256
	Conquest of Babylon by the Assyrians 1250	War with Midianites.		Argonautic Expedition, 1260–1240
	Latinus in Italy 1240	Gideon 1249–1209		THESEUS IN ATHENS 1234
		Abimelech 1209–1206		Seven against Thebes 1220–1210
				Agamemnon. Menelaus.
1200	Proteus in Egypt.	Eli, High Priest 1171–1165	Dawn of Religious Epic (Musæns) 1180	THE TROJAN WAR 1192–1183
		War with Ammonites 1161–1143		Returns of the Chiefs 1183–1170
	Æneas in Italy.	Shibboleth of Gilead.		Orestes in Argos 1176
	Alba Longa Founded 1152	JEPHTHAH 1143–1137		Lydians on the sea 1169
		Wars with Philistines.		Æolian Migration 1124
		SAMSON 1140–1120		Thessaly settled 1124
		SAMUEL 1141–1112		Dorian Migration. RETURN OF HERACLIDÆ 1104
				Melanthus in Athens 1104

TABLES OF ANCIENT LITERATURE AND HISTORY.—Continued.

Table I. B. C. 1500 to B. C. 750. The World Before Rome. By Centuries.

B.C.	Egypt and Many Lands.	Palestine.		Literature.	Greece.
1100	Sidon and Tyre 1095				Pelasgi on the sea 1077
	Cheops (Gt. Pyramid) ... 1082	SAUL (1st King) 1095–1035			Aletes in Corinth 1074
	Mycerinus (Egypt).				Colony from Chalcis to Cumæ, 1050
	Sidon subdued by the Philistines 1050	DAVID (kingdom greatly enlarged), 1055–1015		Psalms of David.	Codrus in Athens 1045
	Hiram of Tyre 1014				Ionic Migration 1044
	Queen of Sheba.				Settlement of Poloponnesus,
	Tyre great 1000–586	SOLOMON (greatest extent of the Jewish kingdom) 1015–975			War between Chalcis and Eretria.
1000		Building of Temple 1012–1005		Proverbs of Solomon.	
	Shishak (Egypt) invades Judea 972	Revolt of Ten Tribes 975		Song of Solomon.	Thracians on the sea 992
	Tartessus founded by Tyre.	JUDAH.	ISRAEL.	HOMER ..... fl. 962–927	
	Benhadad I. (Damascus) allied with Asa.	Rehoboam, 975–958	Jeroboam I., 975–954		
	Benhadad II.	Abijah 958–955	Nadab 954–953	Iliad and Odyssey ... 940–927	Alexas in Thessaly.
	" besieges Samaria, 901–892	Asa 955–914	Baasha 953–930		
	Jezabel of Sidon marries Ahab.	Jehosaphat, 914–889	Elah 930–929	Creophylus (Samos).	
			Zimri 929		
			Omri 929–918		
			Ahab 918–897		Rhodians on the sea 913
900	CARTHAGE founded by the Tyrians 878	Jehoram ... 889–885	Elijah 910–896		Phrygians on the sea 890
	Sardanapalus ..... 875?	Ahaziah ... 885–884	Ahaziah ... 897–896	Jonah (I.) ..... c. 862	Olympic Games 884
	Revolt of Arbaces the Mede.	Athaliah ... 884–878	Jehoram ... 896–884	Hesiod (Ascra) 850	Lycurgus in Sparta 884
	Hazael attacks Israel ... 860	Jehoash ... 878–839	Elisha 896–838		Settlement of Lacedæmon .. 884–776
	Phœnicia under Benhaded III. 840	Amaziah ... 839–810	Jehu 884–856		Cyprians on the sea 865
	Syria tributary to Israel.		Jehoahaz ... 856–839		Phœnicians on the sea 832
			Joash ... 839–826		Foundation of Rhegium 812
			Jeroboam II. 825–784	Joel (J.) 800	Æolian colonies 800
					Ionian colonies 794
800	Egyptians on the sea, 787–751	Uzziah (or Azariah) 810–758	*Interregnum.*	Amos (I.) ..... c. 787	Victory of Coræbus 776
	Pul of Assyria invades Israel, 770		Zechariah 773	Hosea (I.) ..... c. 785	Argos heads a Confederacy 774
			Shallum 772	Agias of Troezen 776	Pandosia and Metapontum founded 774
	Etruscans in Campania .. 760	Jotham ... 758–742	Menahem ... 772–761	Stasinus (Cyprus).	
			Pekahiah ... 761–759	Arctinus (Miletus) ... 775–740	Pheidon of Argos 780–740
	Foundation of ROME ... 753		Pekah 759–739	Cinæthon (Lacedæmon), fl. 765	Miletus powerful. Colonies .. 750
750	Ethiopia independent ... 750			Eumelus (Corinth) ... 760–730	Decennial Archons at Athens .. 753

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table II. B. C. 750 to B. C. 500. From Foundation of Rome to Beginning of Roman Republic. By Periods of Twenty-Five Years.

B.C.	Palestine, Asia and Egypt.	Greece.	Italy and Sicily.	Literature and Art.
750	Nabonassar (Babylon independent) ----747 Persians besiege Nineveh ----747 Peka and Rezon of Syria besiege Jerusalem ----742 Ahaz, of Judah ----742-726 Tilgath Pileser destroys Syria, and carries 2½ tribes captive, 740 *Interregnum in Israel.* Hoshea, of Israel ----730-721 Shalmaneser (Assyria) invades Israel ----728 Hezekiah, of Judah ----726-698	Rise of Corinth ----745 First Messenian War ----743-723 Chalcis founds Naxos ----735 Corinthian Colonies—Corcyra ---734 Philolaus of Thebes ----728	Romulus ----753-716 War with Sabines ----750 Union " ----747 Romulus and Acron, 1st Spolia Opima. Syracuse founded ----734 Leontium and Catana founded, 730	Micah (J.) ----c. 750-710 Isaiah ----fl. 747-698
725	CAPTIVITY OF ISRAEL ----721 Gyges in Lydia ----716-679 Sennacherib invades Judah ----713 " destroyed ----710 Deioces in Media ----709-657 Manasseh ----697-642	Achæans found Sybaris ----721 War between Sparta and Argos, 718 Achæans found Croton ----710	Numa Pompilius ----716-673 Religious Laws. Tarentum founded (Phalanthus), 708	Nahum ----fl. 720-69 Lesches (Lesbos) ----710 Archilochus (Paros) ----708
700	Babylon subject to Assyria ----680 Idolatry in Judah Esarhaddon colonizes Samaria, 677	Annual ARCHONS at Athens ---683 Second Messenian War ----685-668		Simonides (Amorgus) ---693-662 Tyrtæus (Sparta) ----685 Callinus ----678 Terpander (Lesbos) crowned at Musical Contest ----676
675	Psammeticus (Egypt) ----671-617 Colony of Naucratis ----665 Phraortes (Media) ----656-635 War of Holofernes (Palestine) 656 ? Judith?	Rise of Megara ----670 Sea-fight, Corinth and Corcyra, 665 Byzantium founded ----657 Orthagoras in Sicyon ----657 Cypselus at Corinth ----655 Bacchiadæ expelled ----655	Tullus Hostilius ----673-640 Destruction of Alba ----665 Messana founded ----660 Zaleucus in Locri ----660	Alcman (Sparta) ----670 Thaletas (Pyhrric songs) ---670 Eucheir and Eugrammus ---600 Temple of Zeus at Elis ----660 BUDDHA ?
650	Persian Monarchy founded ----650 Amon ----642-640 Cyrene founded ----641 Josiah ----640-609 Cyaxares ----634-595 Scythians in Asia ----634-607 Nineveh taken by the Medes ---625 Assyrian Empire ends ----625 Eclipse in reign of Alyattes (Lydia) ----625 Josiah repairs the Temple ----624	Voyages of Colœus and Corobius. Colony of Battus to Cyrene ----641 Sinope founded ----640 Periander at Corinth ----625-585	Ancus Martius ----640-616 Ostia founded ----640	Zephaniah ----fl. 640-609 JEREMIAH ----fl. 628-586 Thales ----644-548 Mimnermus (Smyrna) ----629

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table II. B. C. 750 to B. C. 500. From Foundation of Rome to Beginning of Roman Republic. By Periods of Twenty-Five Years.

B.C.	Palestine, Asia and Egypt.	Greece.	Italy and Sicily.	Literature and Art.
625	Hilkiah finds the book of the Law, 624 Passover. Ark restored.....623 Pharaoh Necho circumnavigates Africa.....615? Pharaoh Necho invades Judah, 610 War between the Medes and Lydians.....610 Jehoahaz.....609 Jehoiakim.....609–597 CAPTIVITY OF JUDAH, seventy years.....606–536 Pharaoh defeated by Nebuchadnezzar.....605	Draco gives laws to Athens...624 Cylon at Athens.....620 Pittacus at Mitylene.....611 Cleisthenes at Sicyon.....600–560	Tarquinius Priscus.....616–578 Massilia founded.....600	Era of Seven Sages— [Thales, Bias, Pittacus, Solon, Cleobulus, Periander Chilon.] Arion.....625–610 Stesichorus (Himera).....612 SAPPHO (Lesbos).....610 Habakkuk.....fl. 612–598
600	Jechoniah.....597 Nebuchadnezzar sacks Tyre...586 " takes Jerusalem..606–598 Sardanapalus? Zedekiah.....597–586 Pharaoh Hophra (or Apries), 595–570 Astyages or Ahasuerus....595–560 Siege of Sidon.	First Sacred War.....595–585 Solon at Athens.....594 Alcæus exiled.....590 Cypselid dynasty ends.....581	Servius Tullius.....578–534 Census. Comitia Centuriata at Rome.	Epimenides in Athens.....597 Alcæus (Lesbos).....684 Anaximander.....611–547 Anacharsis in Athens.....592 DANIEL.....fl. 606–534 Obadiah.....fl. 588–583 Susarion.....fl. 578 Later Psalms.
575	Civil War in Egypt. Periplus of Hanno.....570? Voyage of Himilco.....570? Crœsus in Lydia.....568–546 Phrygia conquered by the Lydians. CYRUS King of Persia....559–529 " defeats Astyages.....558 Medes and Persians united.....558 Cyrus conquers Lydia.....554 Amasis (Egypt).....570–526	Elis subdues Pisa.....572 Peisistratus at Athens...560–527 Nile opened to Greeks	Phalaris of Agrigentum....570–554	EZEKIEL.....fl. 595–536 The Dædalidæ.....570 Chersiphron.....fl. 560 CONFUCIUS. ZOROASTER? Æsop.....fl. 560 Eugamon (Cyrene).....560 Anacreon (Teos).....560 Pherecydes and Phocylides. Anaximenes.....fl. 548
550	Belshazzar or Labynetus. Babylon taken by Cyrus.....538 Restoration of the Jews by Cyrus, 536 Zerubbabel, Governor Judea...536 Mago. Carthaginian Colonies. Second Temple built.....534–516 Cambyses (Ahasuerus).....529–522 Cambyses' Conquest of Egypt..525 Psammeticus (Egypt).....525	Polycrates at Samos.....532–522	Pythagoras at Croton.....540–510 Tarquinius Superbus....534–509 Roman Kingdom extended over Latium.	Theognis (Megara).....541 Xenophanes (Colophon)....538 Ibycus (Rhegium).....540 PYTHAGORAS.....fl. 531 Thespis (Attica).....535 Haggai.....fl. 520–518 Zechariah.....fl. 520–518
525	Smerdis, Persia, a usurper.....522 Darius I. deposes Smerdis....522 " Hystaspes.....522–486 Periplus of Scylax. Carthage a Republic. Sea-fight with Phocæa. Siege of Naxos by Aristagoras, 501	Insurrection at Athens; Hipparchus slain.....514 Hippias rules.....514 Expulsion of Peisistratidæ, 510 Hippias expelled from Athens.510 Cleisthenes at Athens.....510 Cleomenes at Sparta.....519–490	Wars of Syracuse and Gela. Croton destroys Sybaris.....510 Tarquinius expelled; Era of the Republic.....509 Porsena at Rome.....509 Commercial Treaty with Carthage.....508	Phrynichus.....fl. 412 PARMENIDES.....fl. 505 Heraclitus (Ephesus)..fl. 505 Corinna (Tanagra).....500
500	Ionian Revolt in Asia Minor...501	Embassy of Aristagoras.....500	1st Valerian Laws.....508	Myrtis.....500

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table III. B.C. 500 to B.C. 325. From Foundation of Roman Republic to Death of Alexander. By Periods of Twenty-Five Years.

B.C.	GREECE.	SICILY, ASIA, AFRICA.	LITERATURE AND ART.	ROME.
500	War between Athens and Ægina ..491 Heralds from Darius.....491 Persian Fleet wrecked off Athos...49 MILTIADES, *Gr.*.....fl. 515-489 " at Athens.....493-489 Battle of MARATHON, *Gr.*.....490 ARISTIDES, *Gr.*..fl. 489-483 and 479-468 THEMISTOCLES, *Gr.* (514-447). fl. 480-471 Athenian Fleet built, 481; Walls. .478 LEONIDAS at THERMOPYLÆ, *S. Gr.*..480 Artemisium, SALAMIS, *Gr.*.....480 PLATÆA, *S. Gr.*, and MYCALE, *Gr.*..479 PAUSANIAS, *S. Gr.*.....fl. 479-471 Growth of ATHENIAN EMPIRE, *Gr.*, 478-445	Siege of Naxos .....501 Persia recovers Cyprus, *Per.*....498 Histiæus sent to the Coast.....496 Ionian Revolt subdued.....495 Battle of Lade. Miletus taken, *Per.*.....494 Mardonius subdues Macedonia, *Per.*.....492 Carthaginians in Sicily, *P. C.* XERXES I. reigns, *Per.*.....485-465 Egyptian Revolt.....486-484 GELON at Syracuse, *S. Gr.*..485-477 BATTLE OF HIMERA, *S. Gr.*.....480 Theron at Agrigentum.....488-472 HIERO I. at Syracuse, *S. Gr.*, 478-475 Pausanias at Byzantium.....477	ÆSCHYLUS.....524-456 Ageladas (Argos), *S. A.*, fl. 500 Hecatæus .....fl. 500 Epicharmus (Sicily).....fl. 490 SIMONIDES (Ceos).....fl. 490 Pherecydes (historian)..fl. 480 PINDAR.....522-442 Hegesias and Hegias, *S. A.* Leucippus—Atomic Theory. Hellanicus (Mitylene)..496-411	CONSULAR Government at Rome, *Rom.*.....508-60 Battle of Lake Regillus....498 1st Secession to Mons Sacer, 494 TRIBUNES of the Plebs, *Rom.*, 494 SPURIUS CASSIUS.....494-483 LATIN LEAGUE .....493 Volscian War (Coriolanus), *Rom.*.....489 Hernican League .....488 Agrarian Law of Cassius..486 Wars with Veii.....481-475 Expedition of the Fabii, *Rom.*, 477 Fabii destroyed at Cremera, 475
475	Ostracism of Themistocles.....471 Death of Pausanius.....471 Argives takes Mycenæ.....468 Athenians at Naxos.....466 Battle of Eurymedon .....466 Revolt of Thasos ... .465-463 Revolt of the Helots.....464 THIRD MESSENIAN WAR, *S. Gr.*, 464-455 Ithome taken.....455 CIMON, *Gr.*.....fl. 466-461 and 454-449 Laws of Pericles and Ephialtes....461 Long Walls built .....457-456 Athenian Victory at Œnophyta....456 Tolmides sails round Malea.....455 Five Years' Truce.....450	Victories of Cimon, *Gr.*..... 476 NAVAL Victory of Hiero, *S. Gr.*, over Tuscans .....474 SYRACUSE free, *S. Gr.*.....466-405 ARTAXERXES I., *Per.* (Ahasuerus), 465-425 Story of ESTHER .....461-451 Themistocles in Persia....465-447 Egyptian War with Persia, *Per.*, 460-455 Athenians in Egypt.....460 AGRIGENTUM powerful, *S. Gr.*, 470-405 EZRA, Governor in Judea..458-449	ANAXAGORAS.....500-428 Diogenes of Apollonia..fl. 468 ZENO of Elea.....fl. 464 SOPHOCLES.....495-406 " Tragic Victory..468 Polygnotus (Stoa Poicile), *Pt.*, fl. 460 Ion of Chios.....fl. 451 Bacchylides.....fl. 450 Archelaus (Physicus)....fl. 450 Phormio .....fl. 450 Crates, Cratinus, Enpolis, fl. 450 Phrynis, *M.*.....fl. 456 DEMOCRITUS (Abdera) ..fl. 450	1st PUBLILIAN LAWS.....471 Antium taken.....470 Suicide of Appius Claudius, 470 Terentilian Bill.....462 Æquian War (Cincinnatus), *Rom.*.....458 Icilian Law.....454 Commissioners to Greece...453 THE DECEMVIRATE, *Rom.*, 451-449 THE TWELVE TABLES.....450
450	PERICLES, *Gr.*.....(499-429) " in power.....469-429 Second Sacred War.....448 Athenian defeat at Coronea.....447 Thirty Years' Truce .....445 Revolt of Eubœa and Megara.....445 Decline of Athenian Empire ...445-404 War of Corinth and Corcyra.....435 Congress of Lacedæmon.....433 PELOPONNESIAN WAR..... 431-405 Invasion of Attica by Archidamus..431 Plague at Athens.....430-429 Death of Pericles .....429 Siege of Platæa.....429-427 Naval Victories of Phormio.....429 Corcyræan Massacre.....427 Demosthenes in Ætolia.....426 Sphacteria taken.....425	Athenian Victory at Salamis in Cyprus, *Gr.*.....449 Syracuse subdues Agrigentum, 446 " defeats Etruscans....446 Athenian Colony to Thurii.....444 CARTHAGINIAN VOYAGES. NEHEMIAH, Governor in Judea, 445-420 The Samian War, *Gr.*.....440-439 Carthaginians in Sicily, *P. C.*...431 Revolt of Lesbos .....428 Fall of Mitylene.....427 41 Ships from Athens to Sicily, 426	PHIDIAS (Parthenon), *S. A.*, fl. 448-440 Polycleitus and Myron, *S. A.*, fl. 440 HERODOTUS .....484-408 EURIPIDES .....480-406 Melissus (Samos).....fl. 444 EMPEDOCLES (Agrigentum), 444 Alcamenes, *S. A.*.....fl. 440 METON (astronomer)....fl. 433 Era of the Sophists. PROTAGORAS.....fl. 444 Prodicus.... .....fl. 444 GORGIAS.....fl. 430 MALACHI, Judæa....fl. 436-420 Erechtheium rebuilt, *S. A.*, 432-393 Diagoras (ἄθεος).....fl. 425 Cinesias, *M.*.....fl. 425	APPIUS CLAUDIUS (Virginia), *Rom.* (Dentatus).....449 2d Secession to Mons Sacer, 448 Valerian and Horatian Laws, *Rom.*.....448 3d Secession to Mons Sacer, 448 Canuleian Laws.....445 CONSULAR TRIBUNES, *Rom.*, 444 CENSORS at Rome.....443 Famine at Rome.....440 Death of Spurius Mælius...439 Cornelius Cossus and Lars Tolumnius, 2d Spolia Opima .....437 Destruction of Fidenæ.....426

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table III. B. C. 500 to B. C. 325. From Foundation of Roman Republic to Death of Alexander. By Periods of Twenty-Five Years.

B. C.	GREECE.	SICILY, ASIA, AFRICA.	LITERATURE AND ART.	ROME.
425	CLEON, *Gr.*—fl. 425–422 ALCIBIADES, *Gr.*, fl. 424-413 and 411-404 Nicias takes Cythera and Thyrea 424 Revolution at Megara—424 Battle of Delium—424 BRASIDAS, *S. Gr.*, at Amphipolis 422 Peace of Nicias—421–415 Battle of Mantinea—418 Alcibiades at Argos—416 Affair of Melos—416 Agis occupies Decelea—413 Fleet destroyed at Syracuse—413 The 400 at Athens—411 Callicratidas, *S. Gr.*, defeated at Arginusæ *Gr.* Generals executed, 406 Battle of ÆGOSPOTAMI, *Gr.*—405 LYSANDER, *S. Gr.*, enters Athens 404 Critias and Thirty Tyrants—404	DARIUS II., *Per.*, Nothus 424–405 Congress of Sicilians at Gela 424 Athenians at Delos—422 Alcibiades and Nicias off Sicily, *Gr.*—415 Fleet winters at Naxos and Catana—415 SYRACUSAN EXPEDITION 415–413 GYLIPPUS arrives at Syracuse, *S. Gr.*—413 Athenian Allies revolt 412–411 Revolt at Samos. Alcibiades, 412–411 THRASYBULUS with Athenian Fleet, *Gr.*—411 Battle of Cynossema, *Gr.*—411 ARTAXERXES II., *Per.*—405–359 Expedition of CYRUS the Younger—401	Antiphon—480–411 Philolaus? THUCYDIDES—471–402 ZEUXIS, *Pt.*—450–400 SOCRATES—468–399 LYSIAS—459–380 ARISTOPHANES—444–380 "The Clouds"—423 Andocides—440–390 Agathon—fl. 415 HIPPOCRATES—460–357 Callimachus. *S. A.*—fl. 412 XENOPHON—444–362 PARRHASIUS, *Pt.*—fl. 400 Melanippides, *M.*—fl. 400	Twenty Years Truce with Veii, *Rom.*—425 CAPUA taken by the Samnites, 423 Four QUÆSTORS in Rome 421 Æquian Wars—419–409 Colonies—Bola, Lavici, Ferentinum, Anxur. Victories over Volscians, 409–406 Plebeian Quæstors—409 Pay in Army—406 Siege of Veii (Camillus), *Rom.*, 405–396
400	Democracy restored (Thrasybulus), 403 Socrates condemned—399 Coalition against Sparta—395 Lysander slain—395 Corinthian War—394–392 2d Battle of Coronea, *S. Gr.*—394 Long Walls restored by CONON, *Gr.*—394 Battle of Lechæum—383 Agesilaus in Acarnania, *S. Gr.*—391 OLYNTHIAN WAR—383–379 HEIGHT OF SPARTAN POWER, *S. Gr.* Victories of PELOPIDAS—378–364 Athenians allied with Thebes—378 EPAMINONDAS, *Gr.*—371–362	Return of the 10,000 Greeks, *S. Gr.*—400 DIONYSIUS I. of Syracuse, *S. Gr.*—405–368 Agesilaus in Asia, *S. Gr.*—396–395 CONON at Cnidus, *Gr.*—394 Victory of Dionysius at Helorus, 389 Peace of Antalcidas, *Per.*—387 Cyprian War—385–375 Defeat of Evagoras, *Per.*—385 WARS OF SYRACUSE AND CARTHAGE, *P. C.*—410–340 Hamilcar and Mago, *P. C.* BITHYNIAN KINGDOM—378–75 Carthaginians in Italy, *P. C.*—379 Timotheus in Asia, *Gr.*—372	Euclid of Megara—fl. 400 Antisthenes—426–371 Aristippus—400–365 PLATO—429–347 ISOCRATES—436–338 Timanthes, *Pt.*—fl. 385 Timotheus, *M.*—446–357 Scopas, *S. A.*—c. 395–350 Isæus—420–350 Diogenes the Cynic—419–324 Xenocrates—396–314 Speusippus—d. 319	Embassy to Delphi—398 Battle of the ALLIA—390 ROME BURNT by the Gauls (Brennus)—390 M. F. CAMILLUS, Dictator, *Rom.*—390 ROME REBUILT, *Rom.*—389 Execution of M. Manlius 384 Recovery of Revolted Towns —Tusculum, Præneste, Antium, etc.—383–377 LICINIAN LAWS, *Rom.*—377–367
375	Battle of LEUCTRA, *Gr.*—371 SUPREMACY OF THEBES, *Gr.* Agesilaus in Arcadia—370 Alexander of Pheræ in Thessaly—370 Theban Invasions of Laconia, 369, 368, 362 Pelopidas in Thessaly—368 The Tearless Victory—367 Battle of MANTINEA, *Gr.*—362 PHILIP II. of Macedon, *Mac.*—359–336 Social War—357–355 1st Sacred or PHOCIAN WAR—355–346 Siege of Methone—353	Plato in Sicily—370 Embassy of Pelopidas, *Gr.*, to Persia—367 DIONYSIUS II., *S. Gr.*, of Syracuse, 368–343 Joshua slain by High Priest—366 Plato's 3d Visit to Sicily—361 Samaritans build Temple at Gerizim—360 Kingdom of PONTUS—360–66 ARTAXERXES III., *Per.*, Ochus, 359–338 Revolt of Artabazus—354 DION at Syracuse, *S. Gr.*—357–354 Sidon destroyed, *Per.*—351	Archytas (Tarentum)—d. 370 Eudoxus (mathematician), fl. 360 Phocion—402–317 "Ludi Scenici" at Rome—365 PRAXITILES, *S. A.*—fl. 360 Pamphilus, *Pt.*—fl. 360 ÆSCHINES—389–314 DEMOSTHENES—382–322 Æneas Tacticus—fl. 360 ARISTOTLE—384–322	PRÆTORS and Curule Ædiles at Rome—366 1st Plebeian CONSUL—366 Plague at Rome. Death of Camillus—365 Legend of M. Curtius—365 Wars with Gauls, Etruscans and Hernicans—362–346 Legends of Manlius Torquatus and Valerius Corvus. Laws of Debt—357, 352, 347 C. Marcius Rutilus, 1st Plebeian Dictator—356 C. Marcius Rutilus, 1st Plebeian Censor—351
350	Olynthus taken by Philip, *Mac.*—348 Philip of Macedon in Thrace—341 2d Sacred or LOCRIAN WAR—339 Battle of CHERONEA, *Mac.*—338 **ALEXANDER III.**, *Mac.*—336–323 Destruction of Thebes—335 MACEDONIAN EMPIRE, *Mac.*—334–143 Battle of Granicus—334 " Issus—333 " ARBELA, *Mac.*—331 Exile of Demosthenes—324 325 Death of Alexander—323	TIMOLEON at Syracuse, *S. Gr.*, 345–337 HANNO in Carthage, *P. C.*—340 DARIUS III., *Per.*—336–330 FALL OF TYRE, *Mac.*—332 Foundation of ALEXANDRIA, *Mac.*, 332 BABYLON taken by Alexander, *Mac.*—331 Persepolis burnt by Alexander—331 Judæa subject to Alexander—330 Darius slain by Bessus—330 Alexander at the Hyphasis, *Mac.*, 327 Alexander at Susa—325 Voyage of Nearchus—324–323	Cleomenes, *S. A.*—fl. 350 Phrotogenes (Rhodes), *Pt.*, 360–300 Lycurgus (Athens)—fl. 340 Lysippus, *S. A.*—fl. 335 APELLES (Cos), *Pt.*—350–308 PYRRHO—fl. 350 Hypereides—fl. 346 Demades—fl. 330 Deinarchus—fl. 324 Theopompus (historian), 378–305 Diphilus and Philemon—fl. 330 MENANDER—342–291	Treaty with Carthage—348 1st SAMNITE WAR—343–341 Battle of Mt. Ganrus, *Rom.*—343 Mutiny at Lautulæ—342 Genucian Laws—342 LATIN WAR—340–338 Battle of Mt. Vesuvius, *Rom.* (Devotion of P. Decius Mus. I.)—340 2d PUBLILIAN LAWS—339 1st Plebeian Prætor—337 Settlement of LATIUM, *Rom.*, 338–328 Servitude for Debt abolished, 326

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table IV. B. C. 323 to B. C. 146. From Death of Alexander to End of Third Punic War. By Periods of Twenty-Five Years.

B. C.	Rome and Carthage.	Literature and Art.	Greece.	Sicily, Asia, Egypt, etc.
325	2d Samnite War 326–304 Caudine Forks 321 C. Pontius of Telesia fl. 321–292 Battle of Lautulæ 315 Roman Victory at Cinna 314 Etruscan War 311–309 L. Papirius Cursor Dictator 310 Q. Fabius crosses Ciminian Hills; defeats Tuscans at Vadimon, *Rom.* Bomilcar at Carthage, *P. C.* 308 Appius Claudius Censor, *Rom.* 312–308 Bovianum taken 305 Ogulnian Law 300	EUCLID (Alexandria) fl. 325 Manetho, Egyptian Historian fl. 320? Pytheas, navigator? Philippides fl. 320 Chares (Lindus). *S. A.* fl. 320 Euhemerus fl. 300 Polemo, Crates, Crantor, fl. 315 Timæus (Tauromenium), *M.*, 252–357 Diocles, Roman Historian (Peparethus)? Appian Way and Aqueduct, *S. A.* 312 Demetrius Phalereus 345–283 Eudemus fl. 300	Alexanders: Perdiccas Regent 323–321 Antipater, *Mac.*, in Macedonia 323–318 Lysimachus, *Mac.*, in Thrace 323–381 Cassander, *Mac.*, in Greece, 317–296 The Lamian War (Leosthenes), 323–322 Death of Demosthenes 322 Cassander takes Athens 317 Philip III. (Arrhidæus) killed 317 Olympias killed by Cassander, 316 Roxana and Son killed 311 Demetrius Poliorcetes, at Athens, *Gr.* 308–304 & 295–290 Demetrius Poliorcetes at Thebes 393–301	Successors: Ptolemy, *Mac.*, in Egypt, 322–285 Antigonus, *Mac.*, in Syria, 323–301 Eumenes, *Mac.*, (Cappadocia 323–315 Seleucus, *Mac.*, at Babylon, 321 & 312–280 Ptolemies in Egypt, *Mac.*, 322–30 Ptolemy I. (Soter) takes Jerusalem 320 War of Antigonus and Eumenes 320–315 Agathocles, *S. Gr.*, at Syracuse 317–289 Agathocles defeated at Himera 310 Naval War at Cyprus and Rhodes 307–305 Battle of Ipsus 301
300	3d Samnite War (Samnites, Etruscans, Umbrians, Gauls) 298–290 Gellius Egnatius, Samnite Leader. Battle of Sentinum, *Rom.* (D. Mus. II.), 295 Execution of C. Pontius 292 Last Secession (Janiculum) 286 Hortensian Law 286 Renewed Etruscan and Gallic War 283 2d Battle of Lake Vadimon 283 War with Tarentum 281 Pyrrhus, *Gr.*, invades Italy 281–275 Battle of Heraclea 280 Battle of Asculum, *Gr.* (D. Mus. III.), 279 Rome and Carthage allied, *P. C.* 279	Theophrastus 374–287 Capitoline Wolf, *S. A.* 296 ZENO, the Stoic (Cittium), 366–264 EPICURUS 341–270 Appius Claudius Cæcus, 1st Roman Orator fl. 280 Zoilus and Zenodotus fl. 280 Hegesias (Cyrene) fl. 280 THEOCRITUS fl. 280 Bion and Moschus fl. 270 Aristarchus (Astronomer), fl. 280–264 SEPTUAGINT 277	Philip IV. of Macedon, *Mac.*, 297–296 Demetrius Poliorcetes in Macedon 294–287 Pyrrhus, *Gr.*, of Epirus, 318–272 " reigned 306–272 " in Macedon, 287–286 " in Italy and Sicily, 281–275 Death of Demetrius Poliorcetes 283 Gauls in Greece 280, 279, 278 Brennus at Delphi 278 Ætolian League, *S. Gr.*, 284–167	Seleucidæ in Syria, *Mac.*, 312–64 Sandracottus' Indian Empire, 312–160 Rhodes powerful. *S. Gr.*, 300–200 Kingdom of Pergamus, 283–133 Lysimachus defeated and slain by Seleucus at Corupedion 281 Ptolemy II. (Philadelphus), *Mac.* 285–247 Gauls settled in Galatia 277 Great Wall of China?
275	Battle of Beneventum, *Rom.* 275 Tarentum taken 272 South Italy subdued, *Rom.* 270–266 1st PUNIC WAR 264–241 Hiero of Syracuse joins Rome, *S. Gr.* 263 Agrigentum taken, *S. Gr.* 262 Romans build a Fleet 261 Victory of Duilius at Mylæ. *Rom.* 260 Roman Naval Victory at Ecnomus 256 Regulus, *Rom.*, invades Africa 256 " defeated by Xanthippus, *P. C.* 255 Carthalo, *P. C.*, recovers Agrigentum 254 Roman Victory at Panormus 250	Lycophron c. 285–247 Aratus (Astronomer) fl. 270 Hieronymus (Cardia) fl. 270 Arcesilaus (New Academy), 300–241 Callimachus (Alexandria) fl. 260 Columna Rostrata, *S. A.* 260 Monumenta Scipionum, *S. A.*, 260 Cleanthes 300–220	Achæan League, *Gr.* 280–146 Antigonus Gonatus, *Mac.*, recovers Macedon 272 Antigonus Gonatas takes Athens 268 Aratus, *Gr.* (271–213) " at Sicyon 251	Extension of Alexandrian Commerce. Egyptian Embassy to Rome, 273 Hiero II., *S. Gr.*, of Syracuse. 269–219 Rise of Parthia. The Ansacidæ 256 to A.D. 226 Kingdom of Bactria 254–12
250	Carthaginian Victory at Drepana 249 Sieges of Lilybæum and Drepana 250–246 Hamilcar Barcas, *P. C.*, in Sicily 248–241 Victory of the Ægates (Catulus), *Rom.* 241 War of Carthaginians and Mercenaries, *P. C.* 241–238 Sardinia and Corsica seized 238 Temple of Janus closed 235 Agrarian Law of Flaminius 232 Illyrian War (Queen Teuta) 229 Hasdrubal, *P. C.*, founds Carthagena 229 Gallic invasion (Boii and Insubres). Battle of Telamon, *Rom.* 225–223 Castidium. Viridomarus and Marcellus. 3d Spolia Opima 222	ARCHIMEDES, *S. A.* 287–212 Eratosthenes 276–196 Chrysippus 280–207 Livius Andronicus, fl. 240–214 1st Tragedies at Rome 241–235 Cn Nævius fl. 235–202 Sosilus and Silanus	Aratus, General of Achæan League 245 " at Corinth and Megara, 243 Agis IV. killed at Sparta 241 Antigonus Doson in Macedon, 233–221 Athens joins Achæan League, *Gr.* 229 Roman Embassy to Greece, 228 War between Cleomenes of Sparta and Achæan League 227–222 Reforms of Cleomenes, *S. Gr.* 226–225	Dynasty of Tsin in China, 250–206 Ptolemy III. (Energetes), *Mac.* 247–222 Attalus I. (Pegamus) 241–197 " defeats Galatians 241 Sicily 1st Roman Province 241 Gallia Cisalpina a Roman Province 222

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table IV. B. C. 323 to B. C. 146. From Death of Alexander to End of Third Punic War. By Periods of Twenty-Five Years.

B.C.	Rome and Carthage.	Literature and Art.	Greece.	Sicily, Asia, Egypt, etc.
225	HANNIBAL, *P. C.*—(247–183) Siege of Saguntum—219 2d Illyrian War—219 2d PUNIC WAR—218–202 Hannibal crosses the Alps—218 Ticinus and Trebia—218 Battle of Trasimene—217 Battle of Cannæ, *P. C.*—216 Revolt of Capua—216–211 Fabius and Marcellus, *Rom.* Nola—215 Scipios defeated by Hasdrubal, *P. C.*—212 Hannibal before Rome—211 Battle of Metaurus. Nero, *Rom.*—208 P. Cornelius Scipio in Africa, *Rom.*—204 Syphax and Massinissa—204 Hannibal leaves Italy—203 Battle of Zama, *Rom.*—202	Q. Fabius Pictor, Cincius Alimentus—fl. 220 Apollonius Rhodius—238–188 PLAUTUS—253–184 Greek Works of Art. *S. A.*, brought to Rome—212 ENNIUS—239–169 Cæcilius Statius—d. 168 Rise of Pharisees and Sadducees. Hermippus (Smyrna)? Philinus of Agrigentum—fl. 200	Battle of Sellasia, *Mac.*—221 Aratus and Antigonus take Sparta—221 Philip V., Macedon, *Mac.*, 221–179 Philip and Achæans against Ætolians—221–217 Philip allied with Hannibal, *Mac.*—216 Rome allied with Ætolians, 211 Philopœmen, *Gr.*, General of Achæan League—208–183 Peace with Ætolians and Rome—205 Philip's War with Rome, 200–197	Antiochus the Great (Syria), *Mac.*—224–187 Ptolemy IV. (Philopater), *Mac.*—222–205 Hasdrubal assassinated in Spain, *P. C.*—220 First Commercial War—Byzantium and Rhodes—214 Siege of Syracuse, *Rom.*, 214–212 Battle of Anitorgis, *P. C.*—212 " Elinga, *Rom.*—208 Ptolemy V., *Mac.*—205–181 Attalus and Rhodians war with Philip—203 Antiochus conquers Palestine, 203
200	1st Macedonian War—200–197 T. Quintius Flaminius, *Rom.*—fl. 197 Hannibal with Antiochus, *P. C.*—196 Ligurian Wars—200, 193, 181, etc. War with Antiochus—191–190 Ætolian War—191–190 Deaths of Hannibal and Scipio—183 Encroachments of Massinissa—182–174 Villian Law—181 M. Porcius Cato, *Rom.*—(234–149) T. Sempronius Gracchus in Spain, *Rom.*, 179	Rosetta Stone, *S. A.*—197 Pacuvius—220–130 Afranius—fl. 175 Titinius. Trabea. Atilius. Cato—fl. 170 Carneades (Cyrene)—213–129 POLYBIUS—207–122	Battle of Cynoscephalæ *Rom.*—197 Flamininus proclaims freedom of Greece at the Isthmian Games—196 Philopœmen defeats Nabis of Sparta—192 Sparta joins Achæan League, 192 Antiochus in Greece—192 Philopœmen abrogates Laws of Lycurgus, *Gr.*—188 Lycortas General of Achæan League—183 Embassy of Callicrates—179 Perseus of Macedon, *Mac.*, 179–168	Prusias of Bithynia—200–180 Eumenes II., Pergamus, 197–158 Dynasty of Han in China. Battle of Magnesia, *Rom.*—190 Hannibal at Court of Prusias, *P. C.*—183 Ptolemy VI., *Mac.*—181–146 Pharnaces of Pontus cedes Paphlagonia to Rome—179 Antiochus Epiphanes, *Mac.*, 176–165
175	Eumenes II. comes to Rome—172 2d Macedonian War—171–168 1,000 Achæans in prison at Rome—167–151 L. Æmilius Paulus, *Rom.*—fl. 168 Romans intervene in Egypt—161 Embassy of Carneades, Diogenes and Critolaus—155 War in Spain—153–152 War with Andriscus—148 3d PUNIC WAR—149–146 Achæan War—147–146 P. Cornelius Scipio Minor, *Rom.*—fl. 146 DESTRUCTION OF CARTHAGE, *Rom., P. C.*—146	TERENTIUS Afer (Carthage), 195–159 Zeno (Historian)—fl. 160 HIPPARCHUS—fl. 160 Calpurnius Piso—fl. 160 Sempronius Tuditanus—fl. 160 Cassius Hemina—fl. 160 Cn. Gellius—fl. 160 Aristarchus (Grammarian), 156 Apollodorus (Grammarian), 146	War of Perseus and Rome, 171–168 Battle of Pydna, *Rom., Mac.*, 168 Athenians attack Oropus. " fined by Rome—155 Andriscus in Macedonia—149 Achæan War with Rome, 147–146 Diæus defeated at Lencopetra, 146 Destruction of Corinth, *Rom.* (Mummius), *Gr.*—146 Greece constituted a Roman Province (Achaia) *Rom.*, 146–145	War of Antiochus and Egypt, 172–168 Revolt of Jews under Mat tathias—168 Asmonæans in Judæa—168–37 Cyrene and Libya separate from Egypt—164 Judas Maccabæus—166–161 " allies with Rome, *Rom.*, 161 Bactrians in India—160 Jonathan Maccabæus, 161–143 Demetrius Soter and Alexander Balas. Judæa free with tribute to Syria.
150				

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table V. B. C. 146 to B. C. 0. From Destruction of Carthage to Christian Era. By Periods of Twenty-Five years.

B.C.	Rome.	Latin Literature.	Other Nations.	Other Literature and Art.
150	Lusitanian War.....150–138	C. Lælius (phil.).....186	Polybius legislates for the Achæan Cities.....145	Antipater of Tarsus (Stoic).
	Death of Viriathus.....140	A. Postumius Albinus (hist.), fl. 150	Demetrius Nicator (Syria).145–141	
	Scipio Africanus (Minor) Censor..142		Simon Maccabæus.....143–136	
	Numantine War.....143–133	P. Sempronius Asellio (hist.), fl. 130	Judæa independent.	Panætius.....d. 111
	Scipio takes and destroys Numantia, 133	Attius (dramatist).....170–76	Macedon formally absorbed by Rome.	Glycon (sculptor).
	Tiberius Gracchus.....(164–133)	The Gracchi (orators).	Hyrcanus governs Judæa..136–106	
			" in Parthia.....131	
	Servile War in Sicily.....134–132	L. Cælius Antipater (jurist), fl. 125	Demetrius Nicator restored.130–126	
	Sempronian Laws.....133–123	M. Æmilius Scaurus (orator) 163–90	Attalus III. leaves Pergamus to Rome.....130	Blossius of Cumæ (philosopher).
	Gaius Gracchus.....(154–121)	Lucilius.....148–103	Hyrcanus subdues Idumea and Samaria, and destroys Temple at Gerizim.....129	Rise of the Essenes.
125	Fulvius Flaccus and L. Drusus, popular leaders.....125		Roman Province in Transalpine Gaul.	
	Death of C. Gracchus.....121		" Colony sent to Carthage, 123	
	Q. Metellus, leader of Senate.	Antonius (orator).....143–70	Parthians subdue Bactria.....120	
	Sumptuary Laws.	Crassus (orator).....140–91	Ptolemy Lathyrus and Alexander, 117–81	
	Cimbrian War.....113–101		First Northern Migrations.	
	Jugurthine War.....111–106		Pharisees and Sadducees political factions, civil contests in Judæa.	
	Jugurtha captured.....106			
	2nd Servile War.....103–101			
	Marius conquers Teutons, Aquæ Sextiæ.....102	P. Rutilius Rufus (historian), fl. 100	MITHRIDATES (Pontus)...120–63	
	Marius conquers Cimbri, Vercellæ..101		" conquests on Black Sea.....112–110	Archias (poet).....fl. 102
	C. MARIUS (157–86), 6th Consulship, 100	Q. Claudius Quadrigarius (hist.), fl.....100	" takes Galatia.....102	Hierocles (fabulist).....fl. 102
100	L. App. Saturninus Tribune.....100	Artemidorus (Ephesus), fl..100	Ptolemy Apion leaves Cyrene to Rome.....96	Antipater of Sidon (epigrammatist).
	Glaucia Prætor.....100	C. Licinius Macer (historian) fl. 80		
	Laws of Drusus. His death..... 91		Sulla on the Euphrates..... 92	Asclepiades (physician).
	Social or Marsic War.....90–88			
	L. CORNELIUS SULLA.....(138–78)	Valerius Antias (historian), fl. 80–70		
	" expels Marius.....88		Revolt and Siege of Egyptian Thebes.....86	Library of Apellicon to Rome.
	First Civil War.....88–86			
	First Mithridatic War.....88–84	L. Cornelius Sisenna (hist.) 118–67		
	Cinna at Rome.....87–84		Sulla, in course of 1st Mithridatic War, takes Athens.....86	Dionysius Thrax (grammarian).....fl. 80
	Return of Marius, 87; his death. ...86	Q. Roscius (actor).....d. 62		
	" Sulla.....83			Diotimus the Stoic.....fl. 80
	Second Civil War. Battle of Colline Gate.....82	M. Terentilius Varro..116 28	Tigranes (Armenia).....95–60	
	Second Mithridatic War.....83–81	Hortensius (orator).....111–50		
	Sulla Dictator. Proscriptions...81–79		" at War with Rome, 85–66	Cicero at Athens..... 79
	Cornelian Laws.			
	War with Sertorius.....78–72	Lucretius.....99–55	Pompey in Africa.....81	

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table V. B. C. 156 to B. C. 0. From Destruction of Carthage to Christian Era. By Periods of Twenty-Five Years.

B. C.	Rome.	Latin Literature.	Other Nations.	Other Literature and Art.
75	POMPEY.....(106-48) War with Spartacus.....73-71 Third Mithridatic War.....74-63 1st Consulship of Pompey and Crassus.....70 Pompey defeats the Pirates.....67 Catiline's Conspiracies.....65-63 Cicero Consul.....63 M. Porcius Cato.....(95-46) Pompey's Great Triumph.....61 Cæsar in Spain.....60 Coalition of Pompey, Cæsar, Crassus (First Triumvirate).....60 1st Consulship of Cæsar.....59 Cæsar in Gaul.....58-51 " in Britain.....55-54 2d Consulship of Pompey and Crassus.....55 **C. JULIUS CÆSAR**.....(100-44) MARCUS ANTONIUS.....(83-30	Atticus.....109-32 Laberius (mimes).....107-43 CICERO.....106-43 " against Verres.....70 Lucullus founds Library at Rome.....63 Metellus (orator), Consul.....60 CATULLUS.....87 (or 84)-54 P. Ter. Varro (poet).....b. 82 Calvus (poet).....82-47 Cæsar.....100-44 Sallust.....86-34 Vitruvius (architect).....80-11	Nicomedes III. leaves Bithynia to Rome.....75 Victories of Lucullus in Asia, 74-66 Scythians expelled from India. Hyrcanus II. and Aristobulus at War. Rome interferes in Palestine (Antipater).....69 Antiochus Asiaticus dethroned by Pompey. Syria a Roman Province.....65 Pompey subdues Phœnicia and takes Jerusalem.....63 Judæa tributary to Rome.....63 Cyprus a Roman Province.....57 End of the Seleucidæ.....57 Conquest of Gaul— Helvetii and Ariovistus defeated.....58 The Belgæ and Nervii defeated.57 Treviri defeated.....54 Cæsar crosses the Rhine...55-53 Vercingetorix and Alesia taken.....52 Gaul a Roman Province.....50	Poseidonius (phil.).....86-62 Ænesidemus (phil.)....fl. 80-50 Themison (physician)..123-43 Dioscorides (Mosaics). Indian Drama flourishes. Timagenes the Syrian (hist.)
50	Civil War.....49-48 Battle of Pharsalia.....48 " Thapsus.....46 " Munda.....45 Assassination of Cæsar.....44 Second Triumvirate—Lepidus, Antony, Octavianus.....43 War with Brutus and Cassius. Battle of Philippi.....42 War of Perusia.....41-40 Lepidus expelled from Triumvirate.36 War of Octavianus and Antony. 33-31 Battle of Actium.....31 Gateway of Janus closed.....29-25 OCTAVIANUS (AUGUSTUS), (63-A. D. 14) " Emperor...27-A. D. 14	C. Asinius Pollio (orator and poet).....76-4 Gallus (poet).....66-26 First Year of Julian Calendar, 45 VIRGIL.....70-19 Cornelius Nepos.....d. 14 Criticism of the best Attic Literature at Rome.....30 Mæcenas.....(b. 74-64) d. 8 HORACE.....65-8	Battle of Carrhæ, in Parthia; Crassus killed.....53 Cæsar in Pontus conquers Pharnaces.....47 Cæsar in Africa.....47 Cleopatra.....(69-30) End of the Lagidæ.....43 Antony and Cleopatra on Cydnus, 42. Herod the Great in Judæa..37-4 Agrippa crosses the Rhine.....37 Antony fails in Parthia.....36 " invades Armenia.....34 Egypt a Roman Province.....30	Quintus Sextius (stoic). Cratippus (phil.) Library of Pergamus to Alexandria.....40 Pantheon dedicated by Agrippa.....27
25	Cantabrian Wars.....25, 19, 13 Augustus invested with Tribunicia potestas.....23 Death of Marcellus.....23 Embassy from India.....20 Parthians restore standards.....20 German War. Roman defeat under Lollius.....16 Tiberius and Drusus defeat the Rhæti and Vindelici.....15 Deaths of Agrippa and Lepidus.....12 Augustus Pontifex Maximus.....12 Drusus in Germany.....12-9 Death of Drusus.....9 0 Tiberius defeats Germans.....8-6	Messala.....64-A. D. 9 Tibullus.....54-18 Propertius.....51-16 M. A. Seneca (rhetorician), 60-A. D. 30 Labeo (jurist).....fl. 18 LIVY.....59-A. D. 17 OVID.....43-A. D. 17	Tiridates seeks Roman Court ..25 Romans fail in Arabia.....24 Spain finally subdued. Agrippa in Asia.....17 Cappadocia Roman.....17 British Commerce with Italy and Gaul. *NATIVITY*—Jesus.....4	Dionysius of Halicarnassus, d. 18 Babrius (poet). Diodorus Siculus (hist.) fl. B. C. 8

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table VI. A. D. I to A. D. 200. By Periods of Twenty Years.

A.D.	Rome.	Other Nations.	Literature and Art.
1	Tiberius commands on the Rhine ... 4 Destruction of Army under Varus by the Germans ... 9 Death of Augustus ... 14 Tiberius Cæsar ... 14–37 Germanicus in Germany ... 14–16 " in the East ... 17 " Death ... 19	Judæa a Roman Province under Syria ... 6 Pannonia, Dalmatia, Rhætia and Noricum Roman. Cherusci under Arminius defeat Romans ... 9 Artabanus (Parthia) ... 14–44 Germanicus in Parthia ... 17 War between Arminius and Marbod ... 19	Ovid banished ... 9 Phædrus ... fl. 14 Celsus (physician) ... 17 Velleius Paterculus (historian), B.C. 19–31 Strabo (geographer) ... B.C, 66–22
20	M. Ælius Sejanus dominant ... 20–31 Prætorian Camp at Rome ... 23 Tiberius retires to Capreæ ... 26–37 Fall of Sejanus ... 31 Macro Prefect of Prætorians ... 31–37 Agrippina I. banished, 30; died ... 33 Caligula ... 37–41 " Expedition to Gaul ... 39 " Assassinated ... 41	Pontius Pilate in Judæa ... 25 *CRUCIFIXION*, according to Eusebius Lactantius ... 30	Cæsius Bassus (poet) ... d. 79 Philo Judæus ... c. B.C. 20 - ? Valerius Maximus (hist.)? Petronius Arbiter ... d. 66 Apollonius of Tyana ... b. B.C. 4– Josephus ... 37–97 Philo, Senior Ambassador to Rome ... 40
40	Claudius, Emperor ... 41–54 Conquest of Mauretania ... 42 Claudius invades Britain, 43, War ... 43–51 Execution of Messalina ... 48 Claudius marries Agrippina II. and adopts Nero ... 50 " poisoned by " ... 54 Nero, Emperor ... 54–68 Britannicus poisoned. Parthian and Armenian Wars. Agrippina murdered ... 59	Lycia a Roman Province ... 43 Judæa and Samaria directly Roman ... 44 Thrace " " ... 47 London founded by the Romans ... 47 Frisians subdued ... 47 Colonia Agrippina ... 50 Caractacus Prisoner ... 50 South Britain a Roman Province ... 51 Corbulo in Parthia ... 56–64	Seneca ... 3–65 Lucan ... 39–65 Pliny Major ... 23–79 Annæus Cornutus ... fl. 55 A. Persius Flaccus ... 34–62 Columella (husbandry) ... " 50 Pamphila (female historian) ... " 55
60	Insurrection in Britain subdued ... 61 Rome Burnt. Christians persecuted ... 64 Conspiracy of Piso. Deaths of Lucan and Seneca ... 65 Nero at Olympic Games, 67; Death ... 68 Galba, 68; murdered in the Forum ... 69 Otho. Vitellius ... 69 Civil War. Otho kills himself. Vitellius killed. Vespasian ... 70–78 Batavian, 69–70; British, 61–84; Jewish Wars ... 65–70 Gates of Janus closed; Philosophes expelled ... 71 Reform of Treasury. Titus, Emperor ... 79–81 Herculaneum and Pompeii destroyed ... 79	St. Paul at Malta ... 60? Boadicea in Britain ... 61 Revolt of the Jews ... 65 Josephus governor of Galilee ... 66 Titus destroys Jerusalem ... 70 Civilis leads Batavian revolt ... 70 Agricola subdues Britain ... 78–85	Silius Italicus (poet) ... 25–100 Colosseum built ... 70–80 Papinius Statius (poet) ... 61–96 Saleius Bassus (poet) ... fl. 75 Stoics banished by Vespasian. The Laocoon.
80	Domitian ... 81–96 War against the Chatti ... 82 Agricola recalled to Rome ... 85 Unsuccessful Wars with Getæ, Quadi and Marcomanni. Insurrection of Antonius repressed ... 91 Persecution of Jews and Christians ... 95 Domitian killed ... 96 Nerva, Emperor ... 96–98 Relief of Taxes. Distribution of Lands.	Galgacus at Mons Grampius ... 84 Decebal, King of Getæ, defeats Romans ... 86–90	Amphitheatre of Verona. Demonax the Cynic ... fl. 80 Paris (Pantomime), killed ... 83 Valerius Flaccus (poet) ... fl. 88 JUVENAL ... 47–130? Martial ... 43–104 Quintilian ... 42–118 TACITUS ... ? 55–117 Pliny Minor ... 61–105

TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table VI. A. D. 1 to A. D. 200. By Periods of Twenty Years.

A.D.	Rome.	Other Nations.	Literature and Art.
100	TRAJAN, Emperor.....98–116	Dacia a Roman Province.....106	Forum Ulpianum; Column of Trajan.....103
	Free Constitution. Judicia Majestatis abolished.	Armenia, Mesopotamia, Syria, Roman Provinces.....114	
	Elective Power to Comitia. Free Speech in Senate.		Dion Chrysostom (rhetorician), 50–117
	Trajan conquers the Daci.....101–103, 105	Greatest Extent of Roman Empire.	
	Parthian War.....114–116		Plutarch, fl. 98.....40–120
	Trajan takes Ctesiphon and sails down Tigris.....116	Earthquake at Antioch.....115	
	3d Persecution of Christians.		Polycarp, Bishop of Smyrna.96–166
	Hadrian.....117–138	Picts invade Britain.....117	
	Surrender of Eastern Conquests.....117	Euphrates eastern boundary of the Empire.117	Suetonius.....68–
	4th Persecution of Christians.....118		
120	Hadrian visits Gaul and Britain.....120, 125, 130	Hadrian's Walls—Newcastle to Carlisle....121	Statues of Antinous (Hadrian's Page).
		" " Rhine to Danube.....121	Epictetus.....fl. 117–138
	Extension of Commerce throughout the Empire.		
		Hadrian rebuilds Jerusalem.....130	Moles Hadriani (St. Angelo).
		Revolt of the Jews under Barcochab.....132	Edictum Perpetuum of Hadrian, 132
	Quadratus and Aristides at Athens present 1st Apology for the Christians.....125	Dispersion of the Jews.....135	Ælian (the rhetorician).
		Prosperity in Britain under Hadrian.	Aulus Gellius ("Attic Nights"), fl. 143
		Wall of Antoninus.....138	
140	ANTONIUS PIUS, Emperor.....138–160	Vallum Antonini in Britain.....140	Justin Martyr.....103–166
	Faustina I.....fl. 138–141		Herodes Atticus (antiquarian, etc.).....104–180
	Development of the Civil Law.		Fronto (antiquarian)..fl. 153, d. 166
			Appian (hist.).....fl. 147
		Rome applied to as an Arbiter by various nations,	Galen.....130–200
	Establishment of Schools in Provinces.		
	Insurrections in Provinces quelled.		Gaius (jurist).....fl. 160
	Christianity tolerated.		Appuleius.....130–174
160	MARCUS AURELIUS sole Emperor.....169–180		Celsus (philosopher).....fl. 160
	L. Verus associated in the Government.....161–169	Verus in Armenia and Syria.....161–165	Marcus Aurelius.....121–180
	Faustina II.....fl. 145–175	Seleucia demolished.....165	Lucian.....120–200
	Pestilence and Famines at Rome.....161–166	Death of Verus.....169	Irenæus (Bishop of Lyons).120–200
	Wars with Parthians.....162–166		Pausanias (geographer).....fl. 174
	War with Marcomanni, Quadi, etc.....167–174, 178–180		Polycarp suffers martyrdom.....166
	Greek Philosophers patronized.		
	Rebellion in Syria quelled.....175		P. Ælius Aristides (rhetorician), fl. 170
	Christians in Gaul persecuted.....177	Advance of the Goths. Attacks on Dacia.	Hermogenes (rhetorician).....fl. 170
180	Commodus, Emperor.....180–192		Statue of Aurelius.....180
	Commodus takes the name of Britannicus.....184	Successes of Marcellus in Britain.....183	Dion Cassius (hist.).....155–
	Perennis Prefect of Prætorians.....180–186		Clement of Alexandria.....d. 213
	Cleander " " 186–189		Origen.....185–253
	Commodus as Gladiator. Killed.....192		Julius Paulus (jurist)?
	Pertinax killed.....193		Diogenes Laertius (biographer).
	Didius Julianus buys Empire. Killed.....193	Byzantium taken by Severus.....196	Temple of Sun at Baalbec.....197
	Septimus Severus.....194–210	Parthians defeated by Romans.....198	Athenæus.....fl. 200
	Defeat and Death of Niger.....194	End of Arsacidæ.....}	Hippolytus.....d. 230
	Battle of Lyons. Death of Albinus.....197	226	Tertullian.....190–240
200	Severus invades Britain, 208–209; dies at York.....211	Beginning of Sassanidæ (Persians).....}	Sextus Empiricus (phil).....fl. 225

TABLES OF AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN HISTORY AND LITERATURE.

Table VII. From A. D. 200 to the Norman Conquest. By Centuries.

A.D.	History of Rome and Other Countries.	English and Scotch History.	English Literature.	Literature on the Continent.
200	Caracalla, *Rom.*—211–217	Wall of Severus—210		Lucian died (poet)—200
	Roman Citizenship extended to the whole Empire—211			Sextus Empiricus (phil.)—fl. 225
	Gallienus and the Tyrants, *Rom.*, 259–268		Papinian at York.	Ulpian died (lawyer)—228
	Aurelian, *Rom.*—270–275	Dalriada?	Roman authors read.	Plotinus (phil.)—204–274
	Diocletian, *Rom.*—284–305			Origen (theo.)—d. 253
	CONSTANTINE, *Rom.*, (274–337) 306–337	Carausius revolts—286	Ossian? ?	Zenobia at Palmyra (queen)—270
300	Proclaims Christianity—311	Britain subdued—313		Council of Nicæa—325
	JULIAN, *Rom.*—361–363			Ulphilas. Mœso-Gothic Gospels, 337
	Paganism restored—361	Early Christian Martyrs.		Gregory Nazianzen (theo.)—379
	Great popular migrations begin—375			Ambrose of Milan (theo.)—391
	Theodosius I. Paganism proscribed. *Rom.*—391	Incursions of Picts and Scots.		St. Jerome (theo.)—340–420
	The Empire divided—394			St. Augustine (theo.)—354–430
	ALARIC (Visigoth).		Pelagius.	
400	At Rome—405–410	Romans leave Britain—409	St. Patrick.	Orosius.
	Attila at Chalons, *Fr.*—451		The Traveler's Song.	St. Martin of Tours.
	Genseric at Rome—455		St. David.	Proclus (phil.)—412–485
	Succession of Western Emperors ends—476			
	CLOVIS (Merovingian), *Fr.*—481	Hengist and Horsa—449 Kent.	Beowulf.	
	Becomes Christian—496	Ella, Saxons—477 Sussex.	The Culdees?	
	Theodoric (Ostrogoth), at Ravenna—493	Cerdic, " —495 Wessex.		Boethius—470–526
500		Saxons—530 Essex.	Aneurin.	St. Benedict—480–543
	JUSTINIAN, *Rom.*—527–565	King Arthur?	Merlin?	Tribonian—534
	Belisarius—535–560	Angles—550 (Anglia. Deira. Mercia.)	Taliesin.	Institutes and Pandects of Justinian—534
	Chilperic. Brunehault, *Fr.*—580		Four Masters? (pub. 1634).	Dares Phrygius.
	Lombards in Italy—570–770	Fergus More II.? *Scot.*	History of Gildas—564?	Gregory of Tours—544–590
	MAHOMET—(570–632)		St. Columba—521–615	Cassiodorus.
		Ethelbert (Kent) Christian—598	St. Austin in England—597–610	Gregory I., Pope—590
600	The Hegira—622	Edwin (Northumbria), Rex Anglorum—627	Fragment of Judith.	Laws of Rotharis.
	No Romans after Heraclins, *Rom.*, 610–641		Cædmon?	The Koran published—634
	Pepin of Heristal in Gaul—687	Devon subdued—647	Adamnan—624–704	Omar at Alexandria—640
	Moors in Spain—711–1492	Ina of Wessex—689–726	Laws of Ina.	
			Aldhelm—650–710	

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Table VII. From A.D 200 to the Norman Conquest. By Centuries.

A.D.	History of Rome and Other Countries.	English and Scotch History.	English Literature.	Literature on the Continent.
700	Death of Roderick, *Sp.* ----------711 Charles Martel at Tours, *Fr.* -----732 Pepin the Short, *Fr.* ----------752–768 Death of St. Boniface----------755 Roland at Roncesvalles----------778 Irene (Constantinople)---------780–803 Haroun-al-Raschid ----------780–808 CHARLEMAGNE,(742-814) 771-814	Cornwall subdued. 1st Landing of Danes ------786 Offa of Mercia----------790	Bede----------672–735 Cynwulf ----------715–780 Alcuin----------735–804	Schools at Fulda and St. Gall, Ireland. Benedict d'Aniana---------750–821
800	Saracens in Sicily. Treaty of Verdun (division of Empire) ----------844 Rolf Ganger in Neustria, *Scan.*-841–876 NORMANS in France.	Egbert (Wessex) -----827–836 Kenneth II., *Scot.* Picts and Scots united. 2d Danes. Ragnar Lodbrog. 866 Alfred ----------871–901	History of Nennius? Joannes Scotus Erigena--875 Brehon Law in Ireland. Alfred's Translations.	Eginhard----------840 Otfried's Krist ----------c. 870 Heliand ----------870 Archbishop Hincmar----------882 Old High German Alliterative Poetry.
900	Magyar invasions. Henry I. (The Fowler), *Ger.*-------913 Otho the Great, *Ger* ----------936 Hugh Capet, *Fr.*----------987 DANES in England.	Athelstane ----------925 Battle of Brunanburg------937 Edwy (contest with Church), 955 Malcolm I., *Scot.* Strathclyde ----------944–952 3d Danes. Sweyn. Canute, *Scan.*----------1014	Asser's Life of Alfred -----910 War Poems; Brunanburgh, Maldon. St. Dunstan. Ælfric's Homilies.--------995 The Grave?	Gerbert. Silvester II., Pope, 999–1003 Hroswitha ----------c. 980 Schools of Cordova and Seville, Spain. Avicenna----------980–1037
1000	The Cid (Ruy Diaz) in Spain, (1040–1099)	Malcolm II., *Scot.*---1003–1033 Edward the Confessor.-1042 Macbeth defeated and slain, *Scot.*----------1058 Malcolm III. Canmore, *Scot.*----------1058 Harold ----------1065 " defeats Norwegians.-1066	Annals of Innisfallen: Annals of Tighernach? Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, 875–1154	Translation of Psalms at St. Gall. Icelandic Sagas. Lambert of Herzfeld----------1060

MOHAMMEDAN INVASION OF INDIA.

TABLES OF AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table VIII. From Conquest to Middle of Fourteenth Century. By Periods of Fifty Years.

A.D.	Continental History.	English and Scotch History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1050	HILDEBRAND, or Gregory VII., *Pp.* 1073	WILLIAM I., The Conqueror, 1066–1087		Chanson de Roland.
		Battle of Hastings....1066		Bruno founds Carthusians....1084
	Norman Kingdom of the Two Sicilies....1071	Edgar Atheling to Scotland...1068	Lanfranc....fl. 1070–1089	
	Comneni at Constantinople, *Rom.*	Hereward in the Isle of Ely...1071		Scholasticism.
	Henry IV....1066–1106	Conquest of England completed, 1073		Roscelin.
	Urban II., *Pp.*....1088	Domesday Book....1086	Anselm....fl. 1089–1109	Peter Lombard.
	First Crusade....1095–1099	William II., Rufus....1087–1100		Peter the Hermit.
	THE CRUSADES....1095–1270	Henry I....1100–1135		Verse Edda compiled.
1100	Orders of Knights—	Conquest of Normandy...1101–1107	Ordericus Vitalis....1075–1142	William of Guienne. 1st Troubadour.
	Of St. John, or Rhodes....1048			
	The Templars....1118	Alexander I., *Scot.*....1107–1124	William of Malmesbury. 1095–1142	Universities.
	Teutonic Order....1190	Shipwreck of Prince William..1120		University of Bologna....1116
	Persecution of Jews.	David I., *Scot.*....1124–1153	Euclid translated....1116	Study of Civil Law.
	Hohenstaufen Dynasty, *Ger.*, 1138–1254	Stephen (Blois) and Matilda, 1135–1154	Play of St. Catherine at Dunstable....1119	Pandects at Amalfi....1137
	Guelfs and Ghibellines, *It.*....1140	Battle of the Standard....1138	Hilarius....1110–1160	Abelard....1079–1142
	Second Crusade....1147–1149		Geoffrey Gaimar.	Anna Comnena....1083–1148
	SALADIN....(1137–1193)	Henry II. (Plantagenet)..1154–1189	Wace's Brut' d'Angleterre.	Reineke Fuchs? St. Bernard.
1150	FREDERICK I. (Barbarossa), *Ger.*....1152	Conquest of Ireland....1156	Arthurian Legends,	Study of Canon Law.
		Malcolm IV., *Scot.*....1153–1165		Averroes....1120–
	Adrian IV., *Pp.*....1154	Constitutions of Clarendon ...1154	University of Oxford....1190	Nibelungen Lied.
	Arnold of Brescia....1132–1155	William the Lion, *Scot.*, 1165–1214	Giraldus Cambrensis..1147–1216	University of Paris....1169
	Battle of Legnano....1176	Murder of Becket....1170	Layamon's Brut.	Joachim of Fiore....1130–1202
	Dandolo at Venice....1203	Eleanor and Rosamund.	Luc de Gast....1154–1189	Troubadours and Minnesingers.
	Philip II., Augustus, *Fr.*....1180	Assizes of Clarendon and Northampton....1166–1176	John of Salisbury....1130–1180	Vidal. Bertrand de Born.
	Third Crusade....1190–1192	Glanvil, Chief Justice....1180	Walter Mapes....1143–1200	Walter von-der Vogelweide.
	Innocent III., *Pp.*....1198	Richard I....1189–1194	Josephus Iscanus....c. 1190	Poem of The Cid.
		Massacre of Jews.	Anglo-Norman Ballads.	Gudrun.
		John I....1199–1216		St. Dominic....1170–1221

TABLES OF AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table VIII. From Conquest to Middle of Fourteenth Century. By Periods of Fifty Years.

A.D.	Continental History.	English and Scotch History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1200	*Fourth Crusade*.....1200–1204	Stephen Langton and Barons.	Robert Grostete 1175–1253	University of Salamanca 1200
	Attack on Constantinople....1204			Gottfried of Strasburg's Tristran.
	Latin Empire.....1204–1261	Interdict removed.....1213		Raymond in Languedoc,
GENGHIS KHAN, 1206–1227	Albigensian Crusade.....1207–1229		Story of Genesis and Exodus.	Albert of Stade's Troilus.
	Battle of Bovines, *Fr*.....1214	Magna Charta.....1215	The Ormulum?	The Inquisition begun.... 1229
	FREDERICK II., *Ger.* (1194–1250) 1212	" confirmed and renewed thirty times..1216–1608	"Owl and Nightingale."	St Francis of Assisi 1182–1230
	Fifth Crusade.....1216–1220			Mendicant Orders.
	Frederick King of Jerusalem..1229	Alexander II., *Scot*.....1214–1249	University of Cambridge..1231	Sordello .....fl. 1260
	Alphonso the Wise in Spain, 1226–64	Henry III.....1216–1272	"Ancren Riwle."	Chretien de Troyes 1140–1227
	Gregory IX., *Pp*.....1227	Fall of Hubert de Burgh.....1232	Matthew Paris 1222–1275	Snorro Sturlasson.....1178–1241
	Retreat of Moors to Granada..1240	Unsuccessful Wars in France.		Albertus Magnus 1193–1280
	Sixth Crusade.....1249–1250		Romances.	Trojumanna Saga.
				Prose Edda.....1241
				William of Lorris.
1250	LOUIS IX., *Fr*.....1226–1270	Provisions of Oxford 1259	Thomas of Erceldonne, the Rhymer.	Roman de la Rose.
	Richard of Cornwall, *Eng.*, Emperor of Germany..1256–1271	Alexander III., *Scot*...1249–1286	Michael Scot.....d. 1293	Earliest Plays in Spain and National Lyrics.
	End of Caliphate at Bagdad...1258	Battle of Largs.....1263	ROGER BACON....1215–1292	Benoit de St. More.
	Seventh Crusade.....1270	Barons' War 1262–1266	Telescope, Gunpowder, "Opus Majus."	Thomas Aquinas. 1227–1274
KUBLA KHAN, –1294	Rudolf of Hapsburg, *Ger.*1273–1292	De Montfort's Parliament 1264	Henry Bracton .....c. 1260	Cimabue, *Pt*..... 1240–1308
	Genoa powerful under Doria, 1270–1283	Battle of Lewes 1264	Surtees' Psalter.	Tableau of Marie of France.
	Fra Dolcino.....1275–1304	Battle of Evesham.....1265	Peter Langtoft.	Raymond Lully.....1235–1315
	Sicilian Vespers.....1282	EDWARD I.....1272–1307	Robert of Gloucester...c. 1280	Marco Polo.....1255–1325
	War between Genoa and Pisa.1284	Statute of Mortmain.....1279	Duns Scotus.....1265–1308	Gesta Romanorum. Berchorius.
	Ugolino 1288	Wales subdued.....1283	"Land of Cockayne."	Guido de Columna 1287
	Colonnas and Orsinis at Rome.	Margaret and Baliol, *Scot.*, 1286–1292	Robert (Manning) of Brunne.	Nicholas IV., Pope 1288
	BONIFACE VIII., *Pp*..1294–1303	William Wallace ..fl. 1296–1298		
	Swiss League.....1295	Expulsion of Jews.		
		Battle of Falkirk.....1298		
1300	Charles of Valois in Italy.....1301	Edward II.....1307–1327	R. Higden, "Polychronicon," 1328	Giotto, *Pt*..... 1276–1337
	Philip IV., The Fair, *Fr.*, 1285–1314	The Lords Ordainers.....1310	"Cursor Mundi".....1320	**DANTE** 1265–1321
	Clement V. at Avignon, *Pp*...1305	ROBERT I. (BRUCE), *Scot.*, 1306–1329	Ilumpole's "Prick of Conscience."	Meister Eckhard .....d. 1329
	Fall of the Templars 1305–1310	Battle of Bannockburn, *Scot*..1314		Jean de Meun.
	Henry VII. Luxemburg, *Ger.*, 1308–1313	EDWARD III.....1327–1377	William Occam.....d. 1347	J. Tauler 1290–1361
	Rutli (William Tell?).....1307	David II., *Scot*.....1329–1371	Chester Plays.	Theologia Germanica.
	Morgarten.....1315	Battle of Halidon Hill 1333	Fordun's "Scotichronicon," 1350	Orcagna, *Pt*..... 1320–1389
	Election to Empire declared independent of Papacy.....1338	Battle of Cressy 1346	Laurence Minot.....1300–1352	PETRARCH.....1304–1374
	Louis the Bavarian, *Ger.*1314–1347	Battle of Neville's Cross.....1346	Sir John Mandeville.1300–1370	University of Pragne 1348
	Philip VI. Valois, *Fr*..1328–1350	Calais taken.....1347		Gonsalez de Bercio.
1350	Duguesclin .....(1314–1380)			

TABLES OF AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table IX. From Middle of Fourteenth to End of Fifteenth Century. By Periods of Twenty-Five years.

A.D.	Continental History.	English and Scotch History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1350	Rienzi 1343–1354	War with Spain, Scotland and France.	Langland's "Piers Plowman" 1369	Boccaccio 1313–1375
	Marino Faliero at Venice 1352			
	John II., *Fr* 1350–1364	The Black Death ..1349, 1361, 1369	Chaucer's "Romaunt of Rose."	Gerhard Groot 1340–1380
	Aurea Bulla 1356	Battle of Poitiers 1356		
	The Jacquerie in France 1358			
	Hanseatic League 1140–1723	Peace of Bretigny 1360	Wycliffe 1324–1384	Brethren of Common Lot, at Deventer.
	The Free Companies.			
	Tyrants in Italy ... Visconti, Milan; Scala, Verona; Este, Ferrara	Law Pleadings in English 1362	Barbour 1316–1396	Pedro Lopez Ayala..1332–1407
			Gower 1325–1408	
	Charles V., *Fr* 1364–1380			
	Gregory XI. at Rome, *Pp* 1370	Robert II. (Stuart), *Scot.*, 1371–1390	**CHAUCER** ..... d. 1400	Froissart 1337–1401
	The Schism 1378–1439			
1375	Charles VI., *Fr* 1380–1422	Death of the Black Prince 1376	"Legend of Good Women," after 1382	
	Joan of Naples executed 1382	Richard II. 1377–1399		
	Decline of Genoa.	Wat Tyler's Insurrection 1381	Trevisa ..... fl. 1387	Poggia and Laurentius Valla.
TAMERLANE, 1336–1405	Philip Van Artevelde, *Dtch* 1382	John of Gaunt in Spain 1386	Andrew Wyntoun ... 1350–1420	
	Austro-Swiss War 1385–1470	Raid of Otterburne 1388	"The Canterbury Tales," 1390–1398	Fra Angelico, *Pt* ... 1387–1448
	Winkelried at Sempach 1386			
	Margaret of Norway 1389	Robert III., *Scot* 1390–1406		Amadis de Gaul 1390
	Union of Calmar 1397	Præmunire Statute 1393	Wakefield and Towneley Mysteries.	Ghiberti, *A. and S*, 1381–1455
	Florence powerful.	Henry IV. (Bolingbroke), 1399–1413		
1400	Council of Pisa 1409	Percy Rebellion. Shrewsbury, 1403		Jean Gerson 1363–1425
	Sigismund, Emperor, *Ger* 1410	Prince James of Scotland captured 1405	University of St. Andrews. 1411	Embassy of Ruy Gonzalez to Tamerlane.
	Council of Constance 1414–1418	Albany, Regent, *Scot* 1406–1423		
	Pope John XXIII. deposed, *Pp* .. 1415	Battle of Harlaw 1411		H. Van Eyck, *Pt* 1366–1426
	Executions of Huss and Jerome .. 1415	Henry V. 1388–1422	James I., "King's Quair."	J. Van Eyck, *Pt* 1390–1441
	Frederick of Hohenzollern, Margrave of Brandenburg, *Prus* 1417	Persecution of the Lollards.		
		Battle of Agincourt 1415		Masaccio, *Pt* 1402–1428
		Cobham burnt 1417		
	Hussite War, Ziska 1420–1436	Treaty of Troyes 1420		Thomas à Kempis ... 1380–1471
	Charles VII., *Fr* 1422–1462	Henry VI. 1422–1461	Occleve 1370–1454	Donatello, *A. and S* .. 1383–1466
		James I. reigns, *Scot* ... 1423–1437		

TABLES OF AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table IX. From Middle of Fourteenth to End of Fifteenth Century. By Periods of Twenty-Five Years.

A.D.	Continental History.	English and Scotch History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1425	Joan of Arc, *Fr*.....1429–1431	War between Scotland and England.....1436	Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester.....1430	University of Florence....1438
	French recover Paris.....1436		Lydgate.....1375–1461?	Fra Filippo Lippi, *Pt.*, 1412–1469
	Council of Basle.....1433–1449	James II., *Scot*.....1437–1460	Chevy Chase, and Early English Ballads.	Culture in Aragon and the Sicilies.
	" Florence.....1439			Della Robbia, *A. and S.*, 1400–1482
	Alphonso V. at Aragon, *Sp*.....1449	Duke of Gloucester murdered..1447	Thomas of Walsingham..1440	INVENTION OF PRINTING, 1445
	The Sforzas at Milan.....1449			Cozzoli, *Pt*.....1408–1478
	Hapsburg Emperors, *Ger*..1438 *et seq.*	Jack Cade's Insurrection.....1450	Mysteries and Moralities.	John of Goch.....1451
	The Medici at Florence, 1430 *et seq.*			Memling, *Pt*.....1425–1495
	Nicholas V. Single Pope....1447–1454	Civil Wars of the Roses, 1452–1485	University of Glasgow....1451	Giovanni Bellini, *Pt.*, 1426–1516
	Mahomet II.		Peacock's "Repressor,"..1449	John Wessel.....1420–1459
1450	Constantinople taken.....1453	English expelled from France..1453		The Mazarin Bible.....1453
	Belgrade resists the Turks.	Battle of St. Albans.....1455	Littleton.....1481	Francois Villon....1431–
	Hungary powerful.			De Imitatione.....1471
	The Foscari at Venice.		Sir John Fortescue..1475–1480	Boiardo.....1434–1494
	Pius II. (Æneas Sylvius), *Pp*.....1458		Sir Thomas Malory..1433–1475	Philip de Comines....1445–1509
	LOUIS XI., *Fr*.....1461–1483	James III., *Scot*.....1460–1488		University of Upsala.....1476
	Wars with Charles the Bold.	Edward IV.....1461–1483	The Morte d'Arthur.	Pico della Mirandola..1463–1494
	Poland powerful.			Mabuse, *Pt*.....1499–1562
	Battle of Murten.....1476			Francia, *Pt*.....1450–1518
	Duchy of Burgundy merged in France.	Warwick, King-maker.....1471	The Coventry Mysteries..1468	Ghirlandajo, *Pt*.....1449–1498
	Death of Charles the Bold.....1477	Battle of Tewkesbury.....1471	Caxton's Press in England, 1474	LORENZO DE MEDICI, fl. 1470–1492
	Maximilian's Marriage with Mary..1477			Sodoma, *Pt*.....1479–1554
1475	FERDINAND AND ISABELLA, *Sp.*, 1479–1512	Queen Margaret at the Court of Réné of Provence.....1475	The Paston Letters..1425–1506	Pulci.....fl. 1480
	Prince Henry of Portugal.		Blind Hurry's Wallace.	Ficinus, Politian.
	Charles VIII., *Fr*.....1483–1498	Duke of Clarence murdered...1478		Perugino, *Pt*.....1446–1521
	Provence joined to France.....1487	Edward V.....1483	Revival of Letters, Classical Studies and Theology. Grocyn, Colet, Warham, More, etc.	Arabian Nights.
	Charles marries Anne of Brittany..1491			Leonardo da Vinci, *Pt*..fl. 1490
	" invades Italy.....1494	Richard III.....1483–1485		Sebastian Brandt, "Narrenschiff".....1494
	B. Diaz rounds C. of Good Hope..1486	Battle of Bosworth Field.....1485		
	The Moors driven from Spain.....1491		Erasmus in England.....1497	Savonarola.....fl. 1494–1508
	COLUMBUS.....(1436–1505) 1492	Henry VII. (Tudor)...1485–1509	H. Boyce.....1470–1536	Giorgione, *Pt*.....1477–1511
	Alexander VI., *Pp*.....1493	James IV., *Scot*.....1488–1513	DUNBAR.....1450–1530	Albrecht Durer, *Pt*..1471–1528
	Maximilian I., *Ger*.....1493	Poynings' Act in Ireland.....1495	Douglas.....1474–1522	Raphael, *Pt*.....1482–1520
	Swiss Confederacy Independent..1499			
	Louis XII., *Fr*.....1493–1515			
1500	Vasco da Gama, *Port*.....1497	Sebastian Cabot.....1497	Henryson.....fl. 1490–1500	Michael Angelo, *A. and S*.....1473–1456

Table X. The Sixteenth Century. In Decades.

A.D.	Continental History	English and Scotch History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1500	JULIUS II., *Pp.*—1503	Perkin Warbeck executed—1499	Stephen Hawes—1483–1512	ERASMUS—1467–1536
	League of Cambray. Pope, France, and Empire against Venice.	James IV. of Scotland marries Margaret, daughter of Henry VII.—1502	"Pastime of Pleasure"—1506	Berni—1490–1536
	Portugal powerful in East.		"Nut Browne Maid."	Bembo—1470–1547
	Spain conquers Cuba.	Arthur, Prince of Wales, marries Catherine of Aragon—1501	Skelton—1460–1528	Reuchlin—1455–1522
	Don Manuel of Portugal, (1469-1521)		Scholarship.	ARIOSTO—1474–1533
	LEO X., *Pp.*—1513	Henry VIII.—1509–1547	Linacre, Smith, and Cheke.	Andrea del Sarto, *Pt.*—1488–1530
			Ballads and Monalities.	Voyages of Amerigo Vespucci, 1507
				TITIAN, *Pt.*—1477–1576
1510	Vasco Nunez at Darien, *Port.*—1513	Battle of Flodden—1513	More's "Richard III."	Machiavelli—1469–1527
	Bayard—1524	War with France—1513	First English Prose History.	CORREGGIO, *Pt.*—1493–1534
AGGRESSIVE.	Francis, I., *Fr.*—1515	Battle of Spurs—1513	" Utopia—1516	Mantuan—1513
	Magellan (navigator)—1470–1521	Margaret, Regent of Scotland.	First Original Romance.	Panacelsus—1493–1541
	Adrian VI., *Pp.*—1522	WOLSEY—(1471–1530)		"Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum"—1516
	CHARLES V. { 1516 Spain. 1519 Empire. 1530 Italy.	" Cardinal—1515	Barclay (Ship of Fools, Satire and Eclogues)—1490–1535	C. Agrippa and Cardan.
		Field of Cloth of Gold—1520		Ulrich von Hutten—1488–1523
				G. Agricola—1494–1565
				LUTHER—1483–1546
1520	Gustavus Vasa, *Port.*—1523	Futile Scotch invasion of England—1522	Berner's Froissart—1523	Rabelais—1490–1553
	Peasants' War, *Ger.*—1525		Tyndale's New Testament—1526	Zwingle—1484–1531
	REFORMATION in Germany, 1519–30			Melancthon—1497–1578
OTTOMANS	Confession of Augsburg—1530	Sir Thomas More—(1480–1535)		Holbein, *Pt.*—1498–1559
	Cortez in Mexico—1520		Wyatt—1503–1542	COPERNICUS—1473–1543
	Clement VII., *Pp.*—1523	" Chancellor—1529		Palissy, *A. and S.*—1499–1589
	Battle of Pavia, *Sp.*—1525			Boscan (Spain)— } fl. 1530
	Constable Bourbon at Rome—1528			Hans Sachs (Germany)— } fl. 1530
	Turks before Vienna—1529	James V. reigns, *Scot.*—1528–1542	Surrey—1517–1547	
1530	Pizarro in Peru, *Sp.*—1531	Archbishop Cranmer pronounces divorce—1533	Sir David Lyndsay—1490–1556	Jardin des Plantes.
	Brittany annexed to France—1532	REFORMATION in England.	Elliot's "Governor"—1531	Vittoria Colonna—1490–1547
		Act of Supremacy—1534		Margueret of Navarre—1492–1558
	Ivan I., Russian Czar—1533	Cromwell, Vicar General—1535	Coverdale's Bible—1535	CALVIN—1509–1564
	Anabaptist at Munster—1534	Suppression of Monasteries, 1535–1536	Latimer—1472–1555	J. Everts (Joannes Secundus), 1511–1536
		Execution of More—1535	Leland—1552	Vesalius, first Scientific Anatomist.
	Calvin at Geneva—1532–1535	Pilgrimage of Grace—1537		Ignatius Loyola—1491–1556
		The Six Articles—1539		Francis Xavier—1506–1552
	Foundation of JESUIT Order, 1534	Execution of Cromwell—1540	Cranmer. Anglican Liturgy.	St. C. Borromeo—1538–1576
1540	Council of Trent—1545–1563	Solway Moss—1542	Hall's Chronicles—1548	Mendoza (Hist. of Moors), 1503–1575
		Mary nominally succeeds—1542	Heywood's Interludes.	Benvenuto Cellini, *A. and S.* 1500–1572
		Death of Beaton, *Scot.*—1546		Vasari, *Pt.*—1512–1571
	Smalcaldic War—1547	Edward VI.—1547–1553	Ascham, "Toxophilus"—1545	Palladio, *A. and S.*—1518–1580
		Somerset, Protector—1547–1549	" "Schoolmaster"—1563	Telesius—1509–1588
		Economic distress.	R. Crowley—d. 1588	Sleidan—1506–1556
	Henry II., *Fr.*—1547	Battle of Pinkey—1547	Gascoigne—1540–1577	TINTORETTO, *Pt.*—1512–1594

Table X. The Sixteenth Century. In Decades.

A.D	Continental History.	English and Scotch History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1550	Metz taken by France.....1552	Mary Tudor.....1553–1558	Udal. Earliest Comedy...1550	Sannazaro and Montmajor (Diana).
	Servetus burnt by Calvin.....1553	Lady Jane Grey beheaded.....1553	Wilson's Art of Rhetoric..1551	Socinus.....1539–1604
	Religious Peace of Augsburg..1555	Mary of Guise in Scotland..1554	Mirror for Magistrates.	Stephens and the Scaligers, 1484–1609
	Philip II., *Sp*.....1556	Reconciliation with Rome....1554	Bale's King John.	Gesner's Mithridates.....1555
	Catherine de Medici, and the Guises.	Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer burnt.....1555–1556	Sackville (1527–1608) Earliest Tragedy	Peter Ramus..... — 1572
	Francis II., *Fr*.....1559	Gardiner and Pole in power.	Fox's "Martyrs".....1553	Palestrina, *M*.....1524–1594
	Charles IX., *Fr*.....1560	Calais lost.....1558	Tottel's Miscellany.....1557	P. VERONESE, *Pt*.....1528–1588
		ELIZABETH.....1558–1603	John Knox.....1505–1572	CAMOENS.....1527–1579
1560	Civil Wars in France.....1562–1595	William Cecil, Secretary.....1559	Buchanan.....1506–1582	St. Teresa.....1515–1582
	Soliman II. in Hungary.....1566	REFORMATION in Scotland.	The Geneva Bible.....1560	Beza.....1519–1605
	Pius V., *Pp*.....1566	MARY STUART, Scot., reigns 1562–1568	The Book of Common Prayer, 1560	Ronsard.....1524–1586
	Alva in the Netherlands.....1567	Murder of Rizzio.....1566	Tusser's Bucolics	Silvester's Du Bartas.
	Cosmo de Medici, Duke of Tuscany.	Murder of Darnley.....1567	Bishops' Bible.....1568	Kochanowski.....1530–1584
	Don John of Austria.....1569	Northern Rebellion.....1569		
	Hungary annexed to Austria..1570	Murray, Regent, *Scot*.....1570	XXXIX. Articles.....1571	MONTAIGNE.....1533–1592
1570	Battle of Lepanto, *Sp*.....1571	Morton, Regent, *Scot*.....1572	Puttenham and Coxe.	Isaac Casaubon.....1559–1614
	Poland an Elective Monarchy, 1572	Burghley, Lord Treasurer.....1572	Sir Philip Sidney..1554–1586	University of Leyden.....1575
	Massacre of St. Bartholomew, 1572	Walsingham, Secretary.....1573	Southwell.....1560–1596	Bodin.....1530–1596
	Revolt of Netherlands.....1572	Elizabeth declines the Netherlands.....1575		Cynthio and Bandello's Tales.
	Henry III. *Fr*.....1574	Drake sails round the World..1577	Chronicles of Hollinshed and Stowe.	Mariana.....1536–1623
	The League.....1576–1593	James VI., *Scot*.....1578–1625	Knolles.....1545–1610	TASSO.....1544–1595
	Union of Utrecht.....1579			
	WILLIAM THE SILENT (Orange), *Dutch*.			
1580	Independence of Netherlands Declared.....1581	Risings in Ireland.....1580	University of Edinburgh..1581	Francis de Sales.....1567–1622
	William of Orange assassinated.....1584	Raleigh in Virginia.....1584	Hooker.....1553–1600	Albericus Gentilis at Oxford..1582
	Sextus V., *Pp*..... 1585	Leicester in the Netherlands; 1584	Raleigh.....1552–1618	Gregorian Calendar.....1583
	The Duke of Guise assassinated.....1588	Battle of Zutphen.....1586	SPENSER.....1553–1599	Guarini's Pastor Fido.....1585
	Alexander of Parma.....1571–1592	Babington's Plot.....1586	Warner.....1558–1609	Tycho Brahe.....1546–1601
	HENRY IV., *Fr*.....1589–1610	Execution of Mary.....1587	Peele.....? — 1598	The Caracci, *Pt*.....1560–1609
	Battle of Arques.....1589	Drake at Cadiz.....1587	Nash.....1558–1601	Paolo Sarpi.....1552–1623
	Battle of Ivry, *Fr*.....1590	THE ARMADA.....1588	Greene.....? — 1592	Giordano Bruno..... — 1600
1590	Henry IV., Catholic.....1593	War with Spain and Portugal. 1589–1600	Marlowe.....1564–1593	Charron and Vanini.
			Lodge.....d. 1625	Fludd and Bohem.
			Hakluyt.....1513–1616	
			Coke.....1550–1634	Cervantes.....1547–1616
		Tyrone's Rebellion in Ireland, 1595–1601	Camden.....1557–1623	
	Sigismund of Poland in Sweden. 1592–1600		Lyly (Euphues) and Comedies.....1554–1603	University of Barcelona.....1596
			Shakspeare's Poems.	
			Bacon's Essays.....1597	Lope de Vega.....1562–1635
		Capture of Cadiz by Essex....1596	Globe opened.....after 1594	
			Bodleian founded.....1598	P. Hooft.....1583–1652
1600	The Edict of Nantes.....1598	Gowrie Conspiracy.....1600	Gilbert (Magnetism)..1540–1603	Kepler.....1571–1630

BAR. 1560–1605

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Table XI. The Seventeenth Century. In Decades.

A.D.	Continental History.	British History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1600	BARNEVELD, *Dutch*...1590–1618 Philip III., *Sp*.....1598–1621 Biron's Conspiracy.....1602 Dutch powerful in the Indies..1607 Maurice, *Dutch*.....1584–1625 Spinola.....1604–1625 Truce between Spain and Netherlands.....1609 Moors expelled from Spain...1609 Henry IV. assassinated.....1610	Patent to East India Company....1600 Execution of Essex.....1601 James I.....1603–1625 Gunpowder Plot.....1605 Hampton Court Conference.....1604 Emigrations to Virginia.....1608 Ulster Settlements, *Ire*.....1608 Hawkins at Mogul Court.....1609	**SHAKSPEARE**, 1564–1616 Hall and Marston's Satires. Burbage, *Act*.....? –1619 Dekkar..... -- ? –1639 Chapman.....1557–1634 Daniel.....1562–1619 Drayton.....1563–1631 Davies.....1570–1626 Donne.....1573–1631 Wotton.....1568–1639 **BACON**.....1561–1626	**GALILEO**.....1564–1640 "Don Quixote,".....1605 Malherbe.....1555–1628 Guido Reni, *Pt*.....1575–1642 Quevedo.....1580–1645 Rubens, *Pt*.....1577–1626 Douay Bible.....1609 Honore d'Urfe (Astræa), 1567–1625
1610	LOUIS XIII., *Fr*.....1610–1643 Mary de Medici, Regent. Romanoffs in Russia.....1613 Execution of Barneveld.....1619 Frederick, King of Bohemia..1619 Ferdinand II., *Sp*.....1619–1637 Battle of Prague.....1620 THIRTY YEARS' WAR, 1618–1648	Carr (afterwards Somerset), favorite, 1611 Death of Prince Henry.....1612 Marriage of Princess Elizabeth to Frederic, Elector Palatine.....1613 Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, favorite.....1615 Execution of Raleigh.....1618 The Pilgrim Fathers.....1620	English Bible.....1611 Napier's Logarithms.....1614 Harvey. Circulation of Blood, 1616 Beaumont.....1586–1616 Fletcher.....1576–1625 Ford.....1586–1639 Webster.....1582–1652 Massinger.....1584–1640 Inigo Jones, *C*.....1572–1652 T. Heywood.....1570–1650 BEN JONSON.....1574–1637 G. and Ph. Fletcher..1585–1650	Opitz.....1595–1637 Andreini and Marini, } (Sacred Plays) .....1578–1632 .....1569–1625 Van Helmont.....1577–1644 Teniers, *Pt*.....1582–1649 Kepler's Laws.....1618 Vanini burnt.....1619
1620	**GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS**, 1611–1632 Wallenstein, *Ger*.....1583–1634) New York founded by the Dutch, 1624 Huguenot Rising.....1625 Boston founded.....1627 Rochelle taken.....1628 Philip IV., *Sp*.....1621–1665 Edict of Restitution.....1629 **RICHELIEU**, *Fr*....(1585–1642) " supreme..1624–1642	Bacon's overthrow, *Virginia*.....1621 Seldon and Pym imprisoned.....1622 Spanish Marriage broken.....1623 War with Spain declared.....1624 Charles I.....1625–1645 Eliot sent to the Tower.....1628 Massachusetts Bay settled.....1628 Buckingham assassinated.....1628 PETITION OF RIGHT.....1628	First Edition of Shakspeare, 1623 Burton.....1576–1640 Chillingworth.....1602–1644 Herbert.....1593–1633 Herrick.....1591–1674 Quarles.....1592–1644 Crawshaw.....1615–1650 Alexander, E., of Sterling, 1580–1640 J. Florio.....1545–1625 Middleton.....1570–1626 Usher.....1581–1656	Campanella.....1568–1639 Hugo Grotius.....1583–1645 Gassendi.....1592–1655 Davila.....1576–1631 Vandyck, *Pt*.....1599–1641 Velasquez, *Pt*.....1599–1660 Guercino, *Pt*.....1590–1666 The Elzevirs.....1582–1652 Vaugelas.....1586–1650 J. Balzac.....1594–1654
1630	Fall of Magdeburg.....1631 Battle of Lutzen, *Scan*.....1632 Christina, *Scan*.....1632–1654 Oxenstiern.....(1583–1624) Death of Wallenstein.....1634 Peace of Prague.....1635 France and Spain at War..1635–1659 Independence of Portugal....1640 Cinq Mars and De Thon.....1642 War between Portugal and Holland.	Arrest of Five Members.....1629 Ship Money levied.....1634 Laud and Wentworth in power. Trial of Hampden.....1637–1638 Prynne fined by Star Chamber....1637 Nathaniel Ward, American Author 1570–1653 Covenant in Scotland.....1638 First Printing Press in America..1639 LONG PARLIAMENT.....1640–1653 John Cotton, *Am*.....1638–1652	Shirley (End of Old Drama), 1594–1666 The Cavalier Poets— Drummond.....1585–1649 Carew.....1589–1639 Randolph.....1605–1634 Suckling.....1609–1641 Davenant.....1605–1668 Cartwright.....1611–1643 Lovelace.....1618–1658 Denham.....1615–1668 Cleveland.....1613–1659 Montrose.....1612–1650	Voiture and Hotel Rambouillet. French Academy.....1635 Corneille's "Cid".....1636 **DESCARTES**.....1596–1650 Andreas Gryphius...1616–1664 Harvard College.....1637 University of Utrecht.....1636 Clains' Play of Creation. Vondel.....1587–1679 CORNEILLE.....1606–1684 Jesuits and Jansenists at War.
1640	Louis XIV. accedes.....1643 Anne of Austria, Regent.....1643 Turenne on the Rhine.....1643 Conde at Rocroy.....1643 Masaniello.....1647 Peace of Westphalia.....1648 Frederick William the Great, Elector, *Pr*.....1640–1688 MAZARIN, Minister, *Fr*..1643–1661	First American Book.....1640 Pym, Leader of the House. Execution of Strafford.....1841 Massacre of English in Ireland....1641 CIVIL WAR, 1642–51; Edgehill..1642 Self-denying Ordinance.....1644 Marston Moor, 1644. Naseby....1645 Execution of Laud.....1645 Pride's Purge.....1648 Execution of the King.....1649 Execution of Montrose, *Scot*.....1650 Dunbar, *Scot.*, and Worcester, 1650 and 1651	Cowley.....1618–1667 Waller.....1605–1687 Hobbs' "Leviathan".....1642 Leighton.....1611–1684 Wither.....1588–1667 Marvell.....1620–1678 Royal Society founded....1645 G. Fox. Quakerism.....1647 Confession of Faith.....1649 Icon Basilike.....1649 **MILTON**.....1608–1674	Bollandus.....1596–1665 "Acta Sanctorum".....1643 Salmasius.....fl. 1643 Torricelli's Barometer....1643 Claude Lorraine, *Pt*., 1600–1682 Rembrandt, *Pt*.....1600–1689 The Poussins and Salvator Rosa, *Pt*.....1600–1670 Murillo, *Pt*.....1618–1682 Zaluzianski.....c. 1650 St. Simon and Mme. de Sevigne.

Table XI. The Seventeenth Century. In Decades.

A.D.	Continental History	British History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1650	Cardinal de Retz.....(1614–1679)	Navigation Act.....1651	Fuller.....1608–1661	Calderon.....1600–1683
	War of the Fronde.....1648–1653	Barebones Parliament.....1651	HOBBES.....1588–1679	Pascal.....1623–1662
	East Prussia free from Poland, 1656	Van Tromp in the Thames.....1652	Selden.....1584–1654	Scarron.....1610–1660
	LOUIS XIV. reigns, *Fr.*.....1655	CROMWELL, Protector.....1653–1658	Harrington's "Oceana".....1656	Arnauld and Port Royal.
	Peace of the Pyrenees.....1659	John Eliot, *Am.*.....1604–1690	J. Taylor.....1613–1667	Delphin Editions.
ZEBE, 1658–1707	Colbert, Minister.....1661–1683	Dutch defeated by Blake and Monk, 1653	I. Walton.....1593–1683	M. de Scudery.....1607–1701
		Jamaica conquered.....1656	Sir T. Browne.....1605–1682	Rochefoucauld.....1613–1680
		Death of Blake.....1657	Sir M. Hale.....1609–1676	
		Richard Cromwell.....1658–1659	Boyle.....1627–1691	MOLIERE.....1622–1673
		CHARLES II., RESTORATION, 1660–1685	Wallis.....1616–1703	
1660	Versailles built.....1661	Roger Williams, *Am.*.....1606–1683	S. Butler.....1612–1680	Sir Peter Lely, *Pt.*.....1617–1680
	French India Companies.....1664	Corporation Act.....1661	Restoration Drama, 1663–1700	Bossuet.....1627–1704
AURUN-	Charles II. of Spain.....1665–1700	First Standing Army.	Clarendon.....1608–1674	Bourdalone.....1632–1704
	Spanish Netherlands invaded 1666	Act of Uniformity.....1662	"London Gazette".....1665	"Journal des Savans".....1665
	Peace of Breda.....1667	Secession of Puritans.	Baxter.....1615–1691	La Fontaine.....1621–1695
	The Triple Alliance—England, Holland and Sweden.....1668	2d Dutch War. Van Ruyter in the Thames.....1666	BUNYAN.....1628–1688	Boileau.....1636–1711
	Peace of Lisbon.....1668	Great Plague of London.....1665	Barrow.....1630–1677	Puffendorf.....1632–1694
		Great Fire of London.....1666	Paradise Lost.....1677	
		The Cabal.....1668	Tillotson.....1630–1694	SPINOZA.....1632–1677
		South Carolina settled.....1669	South.....1633–1715	
			Algernon Sidney.....1617–1683	
1670	Turenne and Conde invade Holland.....1672	Lauderdale in Scotland.....1671	Cudworth.....1617–1688	La Bruyere.....1644–1696
	The De Witts assassinated.....1672	The Test Act.....1673	H. More.....1614–1687	RACINE.....1639–1699
	William Stadholder, *Dtch.*, 1672–1702	Charles pensioned by Louis.....1674	Sydenham.....1624–1689	Paris Academy of Music.....1672
	Battle of Fehrbellin, *Pr.*.....1675	Oates Plot. Murder of Godfrey.....1678	Ray.....1628–1705	Filicaya.....1642–1707
	First Russo-Turkish War.....1678	Habeas Corpus Act.....1679	Evelyn.....1620–1706	Spener.....1635–1705
	Peace of Nimeguen.....1678	Sharpe murdered. Drumclog and Bothwell, *Scot.*.....1679	Pepys.....1632–1703	C. Maratta, *Pt.*.....1625–1713
	"Reunions" in Elsass.....1680–1681	Exclusion Bill. Origin of Whig and Tory.....1680	Pilgrim's Progress.....1678	Malebranche.....1638–1715
			Otway.....1651–1685	Abbe Fleury.....1640–1723
			Stair.....1619–1695	Mme. Dacier.....1654–1720
			DRYDEN.....1631–1700	
			Aphra Behn.....1642–1689	
			Buckingham.....1628–1684	
1680	Strasburg seized in time of peace, 1681	Stafford executed, 1680; Shaftesbury acquitted.....1681	William Penn.....1644–1718	Fenelon.....1651–1715
	Sobieski repels the Turks at Vienna.....1683	Pennsylvania settled.....1682	Rochester.....1647–1680	Madame Guyon and the Quietists persecuted.....1687
	Revocation of Edict of Nantes, 1685	Rye-House Plot. Russell and Sidney executed.....1683	Etheridge.....1670	
		JAMES II.....1685–1689	Dorset.....1637–1706	LEIBNITZ.....1646–1716
		Argyle executed, *Scot.*.....1685	Sedley.....1639–1701	
		Monmouth Rebellion. Sedgemoor. Monmouth executed.....1685	Roscommon.....1634–1684	Bossuet's "Variations".....1688
	French in the Palatinate.....1688	Trial of Seven Bishops.....1688	LOCKE.....1632–1704	
	PETER THE GREAT, *Rus.*, 1689–1725	BILL OF RIGHTS.....1689	Purcell, *M.*.....1658–1695	Massillon.....1663–1742
		Cotton Mather.....1663–1728	Sir W. Temple.....1628–1698	
			Jeremy Collier.....1650–1726	
			NEWTON.....1642–1727	J. F. Regnard.....1665–1709
1690	France and England at War, 1689–1697	WILLIAM III.....1689–1702	Sir C. Wren, *A.*.....1632–1723	Sir Godfrey Kneller, *Pt.*, 1648–1723
	Battle of Steinkirk.....1692	Toleration Act.....1689	Wycherley.....1640–1715	University of Halle.....1694
	Battle of Landen.....1692	Siege of Londonderry.....1690	Buruet.....1643–1715	Dictionary of French Academy, 1694
	Namur taken.....1695	Killiecrankie, *Scot.*, and the Boyne, *Ire.*.....1690	Congreve.....1669–1728	Bayle's Dictionary.....1695
	Treaty of Ryswick.....1697	National Debt begun.....1692	Bentley.....1661–1742	Fontenelle.....1656–1756
	The Czar in England.....1697	Glencoe Massacre, *Scot.*.....1692	Halley.....1656–1742	Fenelon's "Telemaque".....1699
	Treaty of Carlowitz.....1699	Death of Queen Mary.....1694	Vanbrugh.....1666–1726	Rollin.....1661–1741
1700	End of House of Austria in Spain.....1700	Abolition of Censorship of Press.....1695	Farquhar.....1678–1707	Rapin.....1661–1725
		Darien Expedition.....1698–1700		
		Second East India Company.....1698		
		Partition Treaties.....1698–1700		

TABLES OF AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table XII. The Eighteenth Century, to the American Revolution. In Decades.

A.D.	Foreign History.	British History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1700	CHARLES XII., *Scan*...1697–1718	Halifax and Somers impeached, 1701	DEFOE 1661–1731	J. B. Rousseau, *Fr*..... 1670–1741
	Battle of Narva..... 1700	Act of Settlement..... 1701	Mandeville 1670–1733	
	Jesuits in China..... 1700	Death of James I..... 1701	Hamilton's "De Grammont"..... 1704	Berlin Academy..... 1702
	War of Spanish Succession, 1701–1713	ANNE 1702–1714	Prior 1664–1721	University of Moscow..... 1705
	The Grand Alliance..... 1701	Irish Parliament petitions for Union 1703	Shaftesbury 1671–1713	Discovery of Herculaneum, *It*..1708
	FREDERICK I., of Prussia..... 1701	MARLBOROUGH..... 1702–1712	SWIFT 1667–1745	Buddæus 1667–1729
	St. Petersburg founded..... 1703	Battle of Blenheim..... 1704	ADDISON 1672–1719	
	Defeat of Allies at Almanza, *Fr.*, 1707	Sir G. Rooke takes Gibraltar..1704	STEELE..... 1671–1729	Vico 1668–1744
	Death of Aurungzebe..... 1707	Battle of Ramilies 1706	"The Tatler"..... 1710	
	Battle of Pultowa, *Rus*..... 1709	THE UNION with Scotland..1707	Arbuthnot..... 1675–1735	Maffei 1675–1755
1710	Archduke Charles, Emperor, *Ger* 1711	Battle of Malplaquet 1709	The Spectator 1711	STAHL 1660–1734
		Harley and Bolingbroke, Tory Ministers..... 1710	Cibber 1671–1757	Boerhaave 1668–1738
	Peace of Utrecht..... 1713	Sacheverell Trial 1710	Gay 1688–1732	
	Frederick William of Prussia 1713	GEORGE I..... 1714–1727	Parnell 1679–1718	LE SAGE'S "Gil Blas" 1715
		Oxford, Ormond, and Bolingbroke impeached..... 1715	POPE 1688–1744	Watteau, *Pt*..... 1684–1721
	Louis XV. succeeds, *Fr*..... 1715		Pope's Homer 1714	
	Duke of Orleans, Regent, *Fr*..1715	Rebellion of 1st pretender, 1715–1716	Bolingbroke 1678–1751	The Bernouillis.
			Toland, Collins, Etc..... 1718	
	Cardinal Dubois, Minister,	Sheriffmuir..... 1715	Lady M. W. Montague, 1690–1762	Holberg 1684–1754
		Septennial Bill..... 1716	ALLAN RAMSAY..... 1686–1757	J. C. Wolf 1679–1754
	Quadruple Alliance against Spain..... 1718	WALPOLE 1721–1742	"Robinson Crusoe"..... 1719	Muratori 1672–1750
1720	Peter, Emperor of all the Russias..... 1722	South Sea Bubble..... 1720–1721	Tindal 1657–1733	Tiraboschi and Denina.
		Atterbury banished..... 1723	CLARKE 1675–1729	Academy of Science, St. Petersburg 1725
	Louis XV. reigns, *Fr*....1723–1774	Wood's Halfpence..... 1723	YOUNG 1686–1765	Manpertuis..... 1698–1759
	Cardinal Fleury, Minister..... 1726	Period of Peace and Prosperity, and Rise of Great Towns.	"Gulliver"..... 1726	Laurent 1715–1773
	Catharine I., Czarina, *Rus.*, 1725–1727		BERKELEY 1684–1753	BACH, *M*..... 1685–1750
		Guy's Hospital founded..... 1724	Modern History at Oxford..1724	HANDEL, *M*..... 1685–1759
	Peace of Vienna..... 1725		Hutcheson..... 1694–1747	Pergolesi, *M*..... 1707–1739
		War with Spain..... 1726	Wm. Cullen..... 1712–1790	MONTESQUIEU 1689–1755
	Victor Amadeus of Savoy resigns to his son, King of Sardinia.	GEORGE II 1727–1760	"Dunciad"..... 1729	
			Maclaurin 1698–1746	
1730	War of Polish Succession, 1733–1735	Queen Caroline..... 1727–1741	"Essay on Man"..... 1733	LINNÆUS..... fl. 1735
NADIR SHAH (1736–1747).		Georgia colonized, *Am*..... 1732	Jonathan Edwards, *Am*.. 1703–1758	
	Peace of Versailles..... 1735	Porteous Mob 1736	Savage 1698–1743	"Lettres Philosophiques" burnt by the hangman.
		"Jenkins' Ear"..... 1738	C. Middleton 1683–1750	
	Peace of Vienna..... 1738	Publication of debates prohibited 1739	Blair 1699–1746	Quesnay 1694–1774
			Hartley..... 1705–1757	Gottsched..... 1700–1766
	Peace of Belgrade..... 1739	Whitefield ..... (1714–1770)	Bradley 1692–1762	Bodmer (Zurich) 1698–1783
		WESLEY ..... (1703–1791)	Bishop Butler..... 1694–1752	Metastasio 1698–1782
	FREDERICK II., *Prus.*, 1712–1740–1786	METHODISM begins..... 1739	Warburton 1698–1779	
			THOMSON..... 1700–1748	
			D. Mallet..... 1700–1765	VOLTAIRE 1694–1778

TABLES OF AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—Continued.

Table XII. The Eighteenth Century to the American Revolution. In Decades.

A.D.	Foreign History.	British History.	English Literature.	Literature and Art on the Continent.
1740	Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary, *Ger*.....1740–1780	Walpole resigns 1742	Richardson 1689–1761	Swedenborg.....fl. 1740
	Charles of Bavaria, *Ger*.....1742	Pelham.....1743	Fielding 1707–1754	Gellert 1715–1769
	War of Austrian succession, 1741–1748	Battle of Dettingen.....1743	Sterne 1713–1768	Condillac 1715–1780
	Francis I., *Ger*.....1745	Anson's Voyage 1740–1744	Arne 1710–1779	Helvetius 1715–1771
	Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.	Battle of Fontenoy, *Ire*.....1745	Hogarth, *Pt*.....1697–1764	Vauvenargue.....1715–1747
	Louis XV. invades Holland...1744	Rebellion of Charles Edward, *Scot* 1745–1746	Garrick, *Act*.....1716–1779	Klopstock's Messiah.....1747
	Dupleix at Pondicherry.....1748	Prestonpans, 1745. Culloden..1746	Lord Monboddo 1714–1799	Malesherbes.....1721–1791
		Clive in India.....1750–1760	Shenstone 1714–1762	Lomonossoff 1711–1765
			Akenside 1721–1770	Rousseau 1712–1779
			Chesterfield 1694–1773	
1750	Paoli's Corsican Revolt.....1754	[*New Style of Dates in Great Britain.*]	Hume 1711–1776	Buffon.....1707–1788
	Earthquake at Lisbon.....1755	Duke of Newcastle's Ministry..1754	Churchill 1731–1764	Discovery of Pompeii.....1750
	Seven Years War.....1756–1763	Braddock's defeat, *Am*.....1755	Gainshorough, *Pt*....1727–1788	Marmontel and Laharpe.
	England allied with Prussia.	Pitt (Chatham) 1756–1761	Reynolds, *Pt*.....1723–1792	B. de St. Pierre.....1737–1814
	Damiens executed 1757	Admiral Byng shot 1756	Woolman, *Am*.....1720–1772	Goldoni 1707–1792
	Battles of Roshach and Leuthen, *Prus* 1757	Battle of Plassey.....1757	Simson 1700–1761	Diderot .... } Encyclopédie. 1751
	Battle of Zorndorf, *Prus*.....1758	English Naval Victories..1758–1759	Smollet.....1721–1771	D'Alembert }
	French defeated at Minden....1759	Wolfe's Victory and Death at Quebec, *Am* 1759	Johnson 1709–1784	
		Conquest of Canada completed, *Am* 1760	Foote, *Act*.....1721–1777	M. Mendelssohn 1729–1786
			H. Walpole 1717–1787	Lessing 1729–1781
			J. Macpherson.....1738–1796	
1760	Catharine II., Czarina, *Rus.*, 1762–1796	George III.....1760–1820	Adam Smith.....1723–1790	Euler 1707–1783
	The Philippines to England...1763	Lord Bute..1762. G. Grenville..1763	Reid 1710–1796	Lavoisier 1743–1794
	Treaty of Hubertsburg.....1763	Wilkes' Agitations 1762–1772	Robertson 1721–1793	Affair of Calas.....6712
	Treaty of Paris 1763	Rockingham and Grafton..1765–1766	Hutton 1726–1797	Condorcet 1743–1794
	Corsica to France, *Fr*.....1769	American Stamp Act.....1765	Wm. Hunter.....1718–1785	Winckelmann .....fl. 1764
	Napoleon and Wellington born, 1769	Riots at Boston, *Am*.....1768–1773	J. Watt.....1730–1819	Scheele 1742–1786
		Letters of Junius 1769–1772	Gibbon 1737–1794	Beaumarchais .....fl. 1764
		Arkwright's Jenny. Watt Engine 1769	Percy's Reliques.....1765	Lavater 1740–1800
		Lord North's Ministry...1770–1782	Collins.....1721–1756	Lichtenberg 1741–1799
		Bruce's Travels.....1768	Gray.....1716–1771	Ewald (Dane).....1743–1781
			Beattie.....1735–1802	
			Black 1728–1799	
			Academy of Arts.....1768	
1770	Parliament of Paris abolished-1771	English Debates reported.....1771	Cavendish 1731–1810	Alfieri.....1749–1803
	First Partition of Poland.....1772	Warren Hastings in India, 1772–1785	Goldsmith.....1728–1774	Turgot 1727–1781
	Hyder-Ali in India.....1767–1780	Suicide of Lord Clive..... 1774	Blackstone 1723–1780	Gluck, *M*.....1714–1787
		Cook's Voyages.....1770–1779	Chatterton.....1752–1770	
		War of American Independence.	Cowper.....1731–1800	
1775	Louis XVI., *Fr*.....1774–1793		T. Warton.....1729–1790	Beccaria.....1735–1794

Table XIII. From the War of the Revolution to 1880. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	Colonial and United States History.	Other Countries.	English and American Literature.	Literature and Art of other Countries.
1775	Cargoes of Tea Ships, Boston, thrown into the harbor by masked men.1773 Boston Port Bill.....1774 First Continental Congress.....1774 Declaration of Rights.....1774 Union of Colonies formed.....1775 Washington, Commander-in-chief, 1775 Continental Fast.....1775 Falmouth burnt.....1775 Norfolk destroyed.....1776 British evacuate Boston.....1776 Declaration of Independence.1776 French Commissioners sent.....1776 Congress adjourns to Baltimore..1776 Philadelphia in hands of British..1777 Alliance with France.....1778 Treaty with France.....Feb. 6, 1778 Philadelphia evacuated.....1778 Savannah taken by British.....1778 New Haven plundered.....1778	Royal Marriage Act, *Eng*.....1777 Death of Chatham, *Eng*.....1778 Neckar, *Fr.*, Minister ...1776–1781 "No Popery" Riots.....1782 Rodney's Victories.....1779–1782 Elliot at Gibraltar.....1779–1782 Tippoo Saib in India.....1779	B. Franklin .....1706–1790 J. Adams.....1735–1826 "Wealth of Nations." Decline and Fall.....1776 B. West, *Pt*.....1738–1820 Priestley .....1734–1804 Sir J. Banks .....1743–1820 Ph. Freneam .....1752–1832 J. Trumbull.....1757–1804 Burns.....1759–1796 Sir A. Ferguson .....1723–1816 H. Mackenzie.....1745–1834 "The Crisis" and "Common Sense."	Herder. *Ger*.....1744–1803 Linnæus .....1707–1778 Heyne .....1729–1812 Mozart, *Mus.*, *Ger*..1756–1792 Kant, *Ger*.....1724–1804 Lessing, *Ger*.....1726–1781 Gall, *Ger*.....1758–1828 Dr. Habnemann, *Ger*.1755–1843 Alfieri, *It*.....1749–1803 Pestalozzi .....1749–1827 Metastasio, *It*.....1698–1782
1780	Charleston taken by British.....1780 New London burnt by Arnold....1781 Lord Cornwallis surrenders.....1781 Independence acknowledged by Holland .....1782 Independence acknowledged by Sweden, Denmark, Spain and Prussia.....1783 Independence recognized.....1783 Peace with Great Britain .....1783 Treaty of Peace ratified by Congress, 1784	Lord George Gordon Riots....1780 Settlement of Upper Canada..1784 Lord Rockingham's 2d Ministry, *Eng*.....1782 Lord Shelburne.....1782 Grattan's Irish Constitution..1782 Coalition Ministry.....1783 Wm. Pitt.....(1759–1806) C. J. Fox.....(1749–1806) E. Burke.....(1730–1797) Wilberforce, Anti-Slavery, (1759–1833) Russia takes Crimea.....1783 England wars with Tippoo Saib, 1783–1799 Erskine, *Eng*..... ....(1750–1823)	Ritson.....1752–1803 H. Blair.....1718–1800 Sir Wm. Jones .....1740–1794 E. Darwin.....1732–1801 Sheridan.....1751–1817 Dibdin .....1745–1814 Paley.....1743–1805 Dugald Stewart.....1753–1828 Hayley 1745–1820	Chateaubriand .....1768–1848 Lavater.....1741–1801 Oerster.....1777–1851 Schiller, *Ger*.....1759–1805 Niemcewicz.....c. 1780 Mallet.....1730–1807 Haydn, *Mus*.....1732–1809 Wieland .....1733–1813 Burger .....1748–1794 Jacobi 1740–1813
1785	John Adams, First Ambassador to England.....1785 Cotton introduced into Georgia..1786 Constitution of the United States adopted.....1787 Constitution ratified by all the States, except Rhode Island and North Carolina.....1788 Emancipatien of Slaves by the Quakers of Philadelphia.....1788 Government organized under the Constitution.....1689 Ten Amendments added to the Constitution.....1789 George Washington, President.1789 Departments of State, War and Treasury created.....1789 John Carroll, First Catholic Bishep in U. S.....1789	Attempted assassination of the King. *Eng*.....1786 Russo-Turkish Wars....1787–1790 Assembly of Notables, *Fr*....1787 Trial of Warren Hastings.1788–1795 Assembly of States General, *Fr.*, 1789 National Assembly, *Fr*.....1789 Bastile stormed.....1789	Joel Barlow.....1755–1812 S. Hopkins.....1721–1803 J. Bellamy .....1719–1790 R. T. Paine.....1773–1811 Horne Tooke.....1736–1812 Hannah More.....1745–1833 J. Jefferson.....1743–1826 J. Madison.....1751–1836 A. Hamilton.....1757–1804 Beckford .....1760–1844 John Jay.....1745–1829 T. Dwight.....1752–1817 S. Peters .....1735–1826 B. Rush .....1745–1813 London "Times" founded, 1788	Goethe, *Ger*.....1749–1832 Berthollet.....1748–1822 Laplace .....1749–1827 David, *Pt*.....1748–1825 Legendre .....1752–1833 Parny 1753–1815

*The memorable battles, military and naval, are omitted from this table, and will be found in Tables of Military and Naval History of the U. S.

Table XIII. From the War of the Revolution to 1800. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	Colonial and United States History.*	Other Countries.	English and American Literature.	Literature and Art of other Countries.
1790	Virginia and Maryland cede District of Columbia.....1790	Suwarrow takes Ismail.....1790	Boswell's Johnson.....1790	Galvanism discovered.....1791
	Benjamin Franklin.....d. 1790	Death of Mirabeau.....1791	Bentham.....1748–1832	F. A. Wolf.....1759–1824
	First Census U. S. taken.....1790	Canada is given a Constitution.1791	Werner.....1750–1817	Goethe.....1749–1833
	First Patent for Threshing Machines, 1790	Legislative Assembly, *Fr.*..1791–92	Porson.....1758–1808	Canova, *A. and S.*...1757–1822
	Bank of the U. S. established....1791	The Revolution, Paris.....1791–92	Parr.....1747–1825	Sir Wm. Herschel..1738–1822
	Vermont admitted into the Union.1791	Escape and arrest of the King.1791	Gifford.....1756–1826	Schiller.....1759–1803
	Washington City chosen as the Capital of the Republic.....1792	Birmingham (*Eng.*) Riots.....1791	Bloomfield.....1766–1823	Kotzebne.....1761–1819
	Kentucky admitted.....1792	Paine and "People's Friend," 1791–1792	Flaxman, *A. and S.*..1755–1826	Talma, *Act*.....1763–1826
	United States Mint established....1792	Conference at Pilnitz.....1792	J. P. Kemble, *Act*...1757–1823	W. Humboldt.....1767–1835
	Coal Mines discovered in Pa.....1793	Battle of Jemappes.....1792	Mrs. Siddons, *Act*..1755–1831	A. Humboldt.....1769–1859
	Steam first applied to Saw Mills in Pa., 1793	The French Convention....1792	Mme. d'Arblay.....1752–1840	Beethoven, *Mus*....1770–1827
	Invention of the Cotton Gin, Whitney, 1793	First Coalition.....1792–1797	Godwin.....1756–1836	Weber, *Mus*.....1786–1826
	George Washington's 2d election..1793	Execution of Louis XIV. and Marie Antoinette.....1793	Mrs. Inchbald.....1753–1821	J. Paul Richter....1763–1825
	Mad Anthony Wayne defeats Indians in Ohio.....1794	Fall of Gironde. La Vendee..1793	Crabbe.....1754–1832	Haüy.....1743–1822
	First Sewing Thread ever made of Cotton produced.....1794	Reign of Terror, Paris.....1793		
		Death of Marat.....1793		
		England begins War with France, 1793		
		Dumaurriez joins the Allies....1793		
		2d Partition of Poland.....1793		
		Toulon taken by the French..1793		
		Toronto made the Capital of Upper Canada.....1794		
		Suspension Habeas Corpus Act, *Eng*.....1794		
		Defeat of the Poles under Kosciusko.....1794		
		Corsica conquered.....1794		
		English Expedition to Dunkirk, 1794		
		Execution of Danton. Fall of Robespierre.....1794		
1795	Jay's Treaty with Great Britain ratified.....1795	3d Partition of Poland.....1795	Blake, *Pt*.....1779–1827	Voss.....1751–1826
	First Glass Factory built, at Pittsburgh.....1795	The Directory, *Fr*.....1795	Tannahill.....1774–1816	Derzhavin.....1743–1816
	Tennessee admitted.....1796	Cape of Good Hope doubled..1795	R. Hall.....1764–1831	Karamzin.....1765–1826
	Washington's Farewell Address ..1796	Disaster of Quiberon.....1795	The "Anti-Jacobin".....1797	Schleirmacher.....1768–1834
	First Cutlery Works established in U. S.....1797	Carnot.....(1753–1823)	Dr. T. Brown.....1778–1820	Werner.....1768–1823
	N. Y. Commercial Advertiser established.....1797	Moreau.....(1763–1813)	Playfair.....1749–1819	Baggesen.....1764–1826
	John Adams, President.....1797	Bonaparte in Italy.....1796	Sir H. Davy.....1778–1829	Novalis.....1772–1801
	Difficulties arise with France. Congress convened preparatory to war.....1797	Battle of Lodi, Arcolo.....1796	Dalton.....1767–1844	Malte Brun.....1775–1826
	Geo. Washington appointed Commander-in-chief of the American Armies, with the rank of Lieut.-General.....1798	Spice Islands taken by English.1796	Lawrence, *Pt*.....1769–1830	Hoffman.....1776–1822
	Alien and Sedition Laws passed Congress.....1798	Jenner's Vaccination.....1796	Bowles.....1762–1852	A. W. Schlegel.....1767–1845
	Death of Washington.....1799	Cash Payments suspended, *Eng.*, 1797	Sir Walter Scott..1771–1832	F. Schlegel.....1772–1819
	U. S. Frigate Constitution captures the French Frigate l'Insurgente.....1799	Hoche fails in Ireland.....1797		Lamarck.....1744–1829
		Battle of St. Vincent.....1797		Jussien.....1748–1836
		Sea Fight of Camperdown....1797		Cuvier.....1769–1839
		Peace of Campo Fermio.....1797		A. M. Ampère.....1775–1836
		End of Republic of Venice....1797		
		Bonaparte in Egypt. Aboukir.1798		
		Battle of the Nile.....1798		
		Great Irish Rebellion.....1798		
		Habeas Corpus Act again suspended.....1798		
		Pope Pius VI. deposed by Napoleon.....1798		
		Parthenopean Republic.....1799		
		Second Coalition.....1799–1802		
		Napoleon.....(1768–1821)		
		The Consulate.....1799–1804		
		Sidney Smith at Acre.....1799		
1800	Three Commissioners sent to France, 1799	Nelson.....(1758–1805)		

*The memorable battles, military and naval, are omitted from this table, and will be found in Tables of Military and Naval History of the U. S.

Table XIV. From A. D. 1800 to A. D. 1825. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D	United States History.	Other Countries.	English and American Literature.	Literature of the Continent.
1800	N. Y. *Post* established.....1800 Important Treaty concluded with France.....1800 A General Bankruptcy Law passed.....1800 Removal of Government to Washington.....1800 Thos. Jefferson, 3d President, 1743–1826 Internal Revenue Law repealed, 1801 The "Whisky Rebellion" in Pa.....1801 Tripoli declares War against U. S.....1801 First Patent for making Potato and Corn Starch.....1802 Ohio admitted.....1802 West Point Military Academy founded.....1802 Louisiana purchased of France, 1803 Com. Preble sent to Algiers and Tripoli.....1803 Alexander Hamilton killed in a Duel by Aaron Burr.....1804 Amendment to the Constitution adopted.....1804 The Lewis and Clark exploring Expedition.....1804	Hatfield attempts to assassinate the King, *Eng*.....1800 Battle of Marengo.....1800 Battle of Hohenlinden.....1800 Malta taken.....1800 Armed neutrality of Northern Powers.....1800 Union of Great Britain and Ireland.....1801 Nelson's Victory at Copenhagen..1801 Peace of Luneville.....1801 Alexander I., *Russia*.....1801 The Italian Republic.....1802 St. Domingo conquered.....1802 Peace of Amiens.....1802 Mahratta War. Battle of Assay...1803 Emmett's insurrection, *Ire*.....1803 Camp at Boulogne. Volunteers...1803	"Edinburg Review" established.....1802 Malthus on Population..1803 Alison.....1757–1839 Coleridge.....1772–1834 Wordsworth.....1770–1850 Southey.....1774–1843 Landor.....1775–1864 S. Rogers.....1762–1856 Isaac Disraeli.....1766–1848 C. Lamb.....1775–1835 J. R. Drake, *Am*.....1795–1820 Slavery abolished in Canada, 1803 W Allston, *Am*.....1779–1843	Voltaic Battery.....1801 J. B. Say.....1767–1820 Madame De Stael...1767–1817 Mickiewick.....1798–1843 Oehlenschlager.....1777–1850 Fichte.....1762–1814 Pestalozzi.....1746–1827 Kriroff.....1768–1844 Chateaubriand.....1769–1848 The Code Napoleon.....1804 Tieck.....1773–1858 De Maistre.....1754–1821 Fouqué.....1777–1843
1805	Peace declared between Tripoli and U. S.....1805 Burr charged with Treason, acquitted.....1806 England persists in the right of searching American Vessels..1806 Rob't Fulton, 1st Steamboat on the Hudson.....1807 Congress declares an Embargo on all Vessels in American Ports.....1807 First Wooden Clocks made by Machinery.....1807 Trouble with England respecting the rights of Neutrals...1807 First Printing Office west of the Mississippi River, at St. Louis.....1808 Abolition of the Slave Trade..1808 Repeal of Embargo Act.....1809 James Madison, 4th President, 1751–1836	Italian and Neapolitan Kingdoms, 1805–6 Third Coalition.....1805 Battle of Trafalgar.....1805 Russia Extends East and South...1805 Capitulation of Ulm.....1805 WELLINGTON.....1768–1852 Coalition Ministry. Battle of Austerlitz.....1805 Deaths of Pitt and Fox.....1806 Dutch and Westphalian Kingdoms, 1806-7 Fourth Coalition.....1806 Battle of Jena.....1806 German Empire Dissolved.....1806 Confederation of Rhine.....1806–1813 Francis I., *Austria*. Eylan Friedland.....1807 Peace of Tilsit.....1807 Danish Fleet captured.....1807 Abolition of Slave Trade, *Eng*....1807 Madeira taken.....1807 Joseph, King of Spain.....1808 New Nobility of France created...1808 Coruna and Walcherin.....1809 Ionian Islands. Collingwood.....1809 Wellesley passes the Duro.....1809 Battle of Talavera.....1809 Finland taken from Sweden.....1809 Battle of Wagram.....1809 Pius VII. imprisoned.....1809	Cobbett.....1762–1835 Hazlitt.....1778–1830 Miss Austen.....1775–1818 Miss Edgeworth.....1767–1849 W M. Witford.....1744–1827 T. Campbell.....1777–1844 "Quarterly Review".....1809 Sir J. Mackintosh...1765–1835 James Mill.....1773–1836 Byron.....1788–1824 Washington Irving, *Am*., 1783–1859 J. Fenimore Cooper, *Am*., 1789–1851 T. S. Key, *Am*.....1779–1843	Chamisso.....1781–1838 Rask.....1787–1814 Arndt.....1769–1864 Körner.....1790–1813 Arnim.....1781–1831 Sismondi.....1773–1841 Battina Brentano....1777–1842 Varhagen Von Ense..1785–1858 Hegel.....1770–1831 Neander.....1789–1850

Table XIV. From A. D. 1800 to A. D. 1825. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	United States History.	Other Countries.	English and American Literature.	Literature of other Countries.
1810	Am. Board Foreign Missions organized ... 1810 Manufacture of Steel Pens commenced ... 1810 First Agricultural Fair in U. S., at Georgetown, D. C ... 1810 Battle of Tippecanoe. Defeat of Indians by Gen. Harrison. 1811 Reparation made by England for the attack on the Chesapeake, 1811 Additional force of 35,000 men authorized ... 1812 Detachment of Militia not exceeding 100,000 men authorized. 1812 Gen. Henry Dearborn appointed Commander-in-Chief. War declared against Great Britain ... 1812 Louisiana admitted ... 1812 Gen. Hull invades Canada ... 1812 " surrenders to Gen. Brock. 1812 James Madison's 2d Presidential Term ... 1813–1817 Massacre of Americans by the Indians at Rever Raisin ... 1813 The Power Loom introduced into U. S ... 1813 Oswego taken by British ... 1814 Treaty of Peace signed at Ghent, 1814 Washington City Burned by the British ... 1814 Hartford Convention ... 1814 Jethro Wood patents Iron Plow, 1814	Insanity of the King, *Eng* ... 1810 Tyrol subdued. Hofer ... 1810 Annexation of Holland ... 1810 Wellington at Tores Vedras ... 1810 The Regency, *Eng* ... 1811 Soult and Massena in Spain ... 1811 Stein ... 1757–1831 Invasion of Russia. Moscow burnt, 1812 Salamanca ... 1812 English Storm Cindad, Rodrigo, and Badajos ... 1812 Perceval shot by Bellingham ... 1812 Lord Liverpool, Premier ... 1812 Battle of Leipsic ... 1813 Lord Eldon, Chancellor, *Eng*. 1807–1827 Battle of Vittoria ... 1813 First Peace of Paris ... 1814 Abdication at Fontainebleau ... 1814 Louis XVIII., *Fr* ... 1814 Talleyrand, *Fr* ... (1754–1838) Congress of Vienna ... 1814 Sir S. Romilly ... (1757–1818)	Shelley ... 1792–1822 William Roscoe ... 1753–1831 Keats ... 1795–1821 Moore ... 1779–1852 Jeffrey ... 1773–1850 Sir C. Bell ... 1774–1842 J. Montgomery ... 1771–1854 R. Heber ... 1783–1826 Sidney Smith ... 1772–1845 Leigh Hunt ... 1784–1859 T. Hook ... 1788–1841	University of Berlin ... 1810 C. Ritter ... 1779–1859 Berzelius ... 1779–1848 Gay Lussac ... 1778–1856 Thorwaldsen, *A. and S.*, 1770–1844 Schelling ... 1775–1854 Ugo Foscolo ... 1778–1827 Savigny ... 1779–1861 **Niebuhr** ... 1776–1831 Schopenhauer ... 1788–1860
1815	Treaty of Ghent ratified by Congress ... 1815 Congress declares War against Algiers ... 1815 U. S. Bank re-chartered for 20 years ... 1816 Indiana admitted ... 1816 The Erie Canal ... 1817–1825 James Monroe, 5th President, 1758–1831 Mississippi admitted ... 1817 Illinois admitted ... 1818 Gen. Jackson defeats the Seminoles in Florida ... 1818 U. S. Flag adopted by Law ... 1818 Foundation of New Capital laid ... 1818 Alabama admitted ... 1819 Lithography introduced into the U. S ... 1819 The Savannah, first Steam Packet crosses the Atlantic ... 1819	Napoleon returns from Elba and 100 days ... 1815 Battle of Waterloo ... 1815 Norway united with Sweden ... 1815 Holy Alliance ... 1815 Second Peace of Paris ... 1815 United Netherlands ... 1815 Metternich ... (1773–1830) Sir George Sherbroke, Governor Lower Canada ... 1816 Agricultural and Weaver Riots, *Eng* ... 1816–1817 The Family of Napoleon forever excluded from France ... 1816 Howe's Trial and acquittal ... 1817 Death of Princess Charlotte ... 1817 Specie payments resumed ... 1817 Republics in South America ... 1817–1830 Francia in Paraguay ... 1816–1840 Bolivar in Bolivia ... 1817–1830 Duke of Richmond, Governor of Lower Canada ... 1818 Peel's Currency Act ... 1819 Parry's Voyages ... 1819 George IV.; *Eng* ... 1762–1830 Victoria born ... 1819	A. Wilson, *Am* ... 1766–1813 Waverley Published ... 1816 Edmund Kean, *Act*. 1790–1833 Hogg ... 1772–1835 Professor Wilson ... 1785–1854 Wilkie, *Pt* ... 1785–1841 Haydon, *Pt* ... 1786–1846 Joanna Baillie ... 1762–1851 Motherwell ... 1798–1835 E. Elliott ... 1781–1849 D. Ricardo ... 1772–1823 J. C. Calhoun. *Am*. 1782–1850 Daniel Webster, *Am*., 1782–1852	Heeren ... 1760–1842 Pousckin, *Rus* ... 1799–1837 Lacordaire ... 1802–1861 Lammenais ... 1782–1854 Tegner ... 1782–1846 A. De Tocqueville ... 1805–1859 Platen ... 1796–1835 Uhland ... 1787–1862 Paganini (Mus.) ... 1784–1840 Beranger ... 1780–1857 Neander ... 1789–1850
1820	James Monroe's 2d Presidential Election ... 1820 Passage of the Missouri Compromise ... 1820 Florida Ceded to United States by Spain ... 1820 Percussion Caps for Guns first used ... 1820 Maine admitted ... 1820 Stephen Decatur killed in a duel by Com. Barron ... 1820 Missouri admitted ... 1821 Gas first used for illuminating purposes ... 1822 Boston incorporated as a City. 1822 Independence of South American Republics acknowledged by the U. S ... 1822 Com Porter suppresses piracies in the West Indies ... 1823 The Monroe Doctrine ... 1823 Gen. La Fayette re-visits the U. S ... 1823 1825 Pins first made by Machinery. 1824	Inquisition abolished in Spain ... 1820 Cato Street Conspiracy, *Eng* ... 1820 Trial of Queen Caroline ... 1820 Death of Napoleon ... 1821 Austria maintains Despotisms in Italy. Antagonism between the French and English Inhabitants Lower Canada ... 1822 Castlereagh's Suicide ... 1822 " replaced by Canning. 1823 First Mechanics' Institute, *Eng*. 1823 Agitation about Test and Corporation Acts, *Eng* ... 1823 English-Burmese War ... 1824 Charles X ... 1824 Welland Canal. Canada Charter. 1824 Brazil Independent ... 1825 Greek War of Independence. 1822–1829 Nicholas I., *Russia* ... 1825–1855	Lockhart ... 1794–1854 Galt ... 1779–1839 Wm. Etty, *Pt* ... 1787–1798 Mrs. Hemans ... 1793–1835 Pollok ... 1799–1827 Barham (Ingoldsby). 1788–1845 George Stephenson ... 1781–1848 Lingard ... 1771–1851 Thomas Hood ... 1799–1845 Chautrey, *A. and S.* 1781–1841 Davidson Sisters, *Am*. 1808–1838 W. Wirt, *Am* ... 1772–1834 Audubon, " ... 1780–1851 J. Kent, " ... 1763–1847	**Heine** ... 1800–1856 Börne (Immermann) ... 1796–1840 Jouffray ... 1796–1842 Cousin ... 1792–1867 Guizot ... 1787–1874 Manzoni ... 1784–1873 Lermontoff ... 1814–1840 Boyle, H. (Stendhal) ... 1783–1842 Turgenieff ... 1784–1845 Silvio Pellico ... 1789–1854 Rossini, *Mus* ... 1792–1868 Malibran (Garcia) *Act*., 1808–1836

Table XV. From A.D. 1825 to A.D. 1845. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	United States History.	Other Countries.	English and American Literature.	Literature and Art of other Countries.
1825	J. Q. Adams, 6th President..1767–1848	First Railway in England.....1825	Sir William Hamilton, 1788–1856	Donizetti, *Mus*.....1798–1848
	Corner Stone Bunker Hill Monument laid by Lafayette.....1825	Thames Tunnel.....1825	Dr Chalmers 1786–1847	Schubert, *Mus*.....1797–1828
	Babcock makes first Piano.....1825	Canning, Minister, *Eng*.....1827	L. E. Landon.....1802–1838	Bellini, *Mus*.....1806–1835
	Convention with Great Britain concerning Indemnities.....1826	Battle of Navarino.....1827	Miss Mitford.....1787–1855	Mendelssohn, *Mus*..1809–1847
	John Adams died.....1826	Palmerston, Foreign Secretary, *Eng*.....1827	Edward Irving.....1792–1834	Meyerbeer, *Mus*....1794–1864
	Thomas Jefferson died.....1826	O'Connell's Agitations in Ireland, 1828	Sheridan Knowles...1784–1862	A. Scheffer, *Pt*.....1795–1858
	Duel between Henry Clay and John Randolph.....1826	Wellington, Prime Minister...1828	Procter (Barry Cornwall), 1798–1862	Delaroche, *Pt*.....1797–1852
	Intense Anti-Masonic excitement..1826	Peace of Adrianople.....1829	De Quincey 1785–1860	Augustin Thierry....1795–1856
	First Railroad in the U. S., from Quincy to Boston.....1827	Contest between Dom Pedro and Prince Miguel in Portugal.....1826–1834	Macaulay.....1800–1859	Balzac 1799–1850
	Sand and Emery Paper first made..1828	Catholic Emancipation, *Eng*..1829	H. Hallam.....1778–1859	Comte 1798–1857
	Passage of Tariff Bill. Woolen Manufacturers protected.....1828	First agitation for responsible government in Upper Canada, 1829	Carlyle 1795–1881	Lenan 1802–1850
	Tariff Bill a law. Opposed by Cotton States.....1828		Story, *Am. law*.....1779–1845	
	Andrew Jackson, 7th President, 1767–1845		Marshall, " 1755–1835	
	" opposes the project to recharter Bank of U. S..1829		Emmons, *Am. theol*..1745–1840	
	Daniel Webster's great speech against nullification.....1829			
	Samuel Colt made his first Revolver, 1829			
1830	Treaty with Turkey.....1830	July Revolution in France..1830	Whately.....1787–1863	Arago 1786–1853
	The Mormon Church founded by Jos. Smith.....1830	Lord Aylmer, Governor of Lower Canada.....1830	P. F. Tytler.....1791–1849	Thiers 1797
	Death of ex-President Monroe....1831	Charles X. abdicates in favor of Duke of Bordeaux.....1830	Dr. Arnold 1795–1842	Lamartine 1790–1869
	Establishment of the *Liberator*...1831	Insurrection in Poland..1830–1831	Macready, *Act*.....1793–1873	Michelet 1798–1874
	First Mowing Machine patented..1831	Louis Philippe, *Fr*.....1830–1848	Sir F. Palgrave.....1788–1861	Victor Hugo.....1802
	Chloroform discovered by Gustino..1831	William IV., *Eng*.....1830–1837	Brougham.....1778–1868	Leopardi 1798–1837
	Steam Knitting Machinery first used.....1831	Earl Grey's Ministry, *Eng*....1831	Charles Napier.....1786–1861	Giusti 1809–1850
	Pres. Jackson vetoes the Bank Bill.....1832	Leopold, King of Belgians....1831	William Napier.....1785–1861	Becker 1816–1845
	New Tariff Measures passed.....1832	The Reform Bill, *Eng*...1830–1832	Turner, *Pt*.....1775–1851	F. Bremer 1801–1865
	Rubber Shoes first made.....1832	Dutch thrown back on Holland, 1832	David Cox, *Pt*.....1793–1859	Oersted 1777–1851
	South Carolina Nullification Movement.....1832	Imperial Duties surrendered to the Canadian Assembly.....1832	Halleck, *Am*.....1795–1867	H. C. Andersen 1805–1875
	First appearance of Asiatic Cholera, 1832	Russia takes remains of Poland, 1832	R. H. Dana, *Am*.....1787–1879	Lipsius 1818–1853
	The Black Hawk War.....1832	Otho of Bavaria, King of Greece, 1832	J. Pierpont " 1785–1866	Ewald 1803–1875
	State's Rights Doctrine dates from 1832	Negro Slavery abolished in British Colonies.....1833	Percival, " 1795–1856	J. B. Dumas, *Fr*.....1800
	President Jackson's Nullification Proclamation.....1832	The Zollverein, *Ger*.....1834		
	Prof. Morse invents the Magnetic Telegraph.....1832	Trades-Union and Repeal Riots, *Eng*.....1834		
	Removal of the Public Deposits from the Bank of the U. S.....1833	Lord Melbourne's Ministry, *Eng*., 1834		
	Andrew Jackson's 2d Presidential Term.....1833	Don Carlos in Spain.....1833–1840		
	Tariff Controversy settled 1833	Quadruple Alliance.....1834		
	The N. Y. *Sun*, first penny paper established 1833	Lord John Russell, Whig Leader, *Eng*.....1834		
	First Double-Cylinder Press made..1833	Maria Christina, *Sp*., Regent, 1833–1840		
	Caloric engine invented.....1833	Lord Brougham, Whig Orator, 1834		
	Gen. Thompson killed in Seminole War.....1834	Tractarian Movement, *Eng*., 1833–1841		
	Lucifer Matches first made in U. S..1834			
	Cyrus McCormick's Reaper patented, 1834			

Table XV. From A. D. 1825 to A. D. 1845. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	United States History.	Other Countries.	English and American Literature.	Literature and Art of other Countries.
1835	Great Fire in New York; 674 buildings burned.....1835	The Jupineau party advocate Canadian separation from Great Britain.....1835	H. Taylor 1800	Montalembert 1810–1870
	Seminole Indian War, under Osceola, 1835	Mehemet Ali / Ibrahim Pasha 1832–1848	J. H. Newman.....1801	A. Dumas (Père) .... 1803 87[illegible]
	Creek Indians in Georgia removed beyond the Mississippi.....1835	Ecclesiastical Commission, *Eng.*, 1836	E. B. Pusey 1800	Zschokke 1771–1848
	N. Y. *Herald* founded by James G Bennett.....1835	Louis Napoleon at Strasburg..1836	Keble 1792–1866	Mme. Dudevant (George Sand), 1804–1876
	The National Debt paid.....1835	VICTORIA.....1837	A. W. Pugin, *A. and S.*, 1811–1852	Eugene Sue.....1804–1857
	Post and Patent Offices, Washington, burned.....1836	Ernest Augustus of Hanover..1837	Isaac Taylor.....1787–1865	Lenancourt (Obermann)?
	Alpaca first made.....1836	Coersive measures of the British Parliament 1837	D. Jerrold.....1803–1857	Azeglio 1800–1866
	Arkansas admitted.....1836	House of Assembly, Lower Canada, refuses to transact business 1837	Milman 1791–1868	Quinet 1803–1875
	Electric Telegraph.....1837	Insurrection in Canada..1837–1838	Thirlwall.....1797–1875	Chopin, *Mus*.....1810–1849
	Martin Van Buren, 8th President, 1782–1862	Anti-Corn-Law League, *Eng*..1838	Grote.....1794–1871	J. L. Grimm 1785–1863
	Independence of Texas acknowledged, 1837	Lord Durham in Canada.....1838	J. S. Mill.....1806–1873	W. K. Grimm 1786–1859
	Great Financial Crisis 1837	Union of Upper and Lower Canada. Lord Sydenham, Governor.....1839	J. F. Cooper, *Am. novelist*, 1789–1851	
	Extra session of Congress called to devise relief.....1837		Mrs. Sedgwick, " 1789–1867	
	Riot at Alton, Ill. Rev. E. P. Lovejoy killed.....1837		Paulding, " 1778–1860	
	The Mormons driven from Missouri, 1838			
	The Banks suspend specie payments, 1839			
	Goodyear invents Vulcanized Rubber, 1839			
1840	Log Cabin and Hard Cider Campaign, 1840	Clergy Reserve's question settled, *Canada* 1840	T. M. Kemble 1807–1857	Dahlmann 1785
	Jerome manufactures Brass Clocks, 1840	Death of Lord Sydenham 1840	Moxon tried for "Queen Mab" 1841	Gervinus 1805–1871
	William Henry Harrison, 9th President.....1773–1841	Queen Victoria's Marriage....1840	Stanfield, *Pt*.....1798–1867	Verdi, *Mus*.....1814
	President Harrison died in office..1841	Penny Postage, *Eng.*, established, 1840	Channino.....1780–1842	Mdle. Grisi, *Act*....1812
	N. Y. *Tribune* founded by Horace Greeley.....1841	Sir William Peel in power, 1841–1846	Miss Martineau.....1801–1876	Rachel, *Act*.....1821–1858
	U. S. Bank failed, followed by banks generally 1841	Opium War in China....1839–1842	Sir A. Alison 1790–1867	Jenny Lind, *Singer*.1821
	Webster's Dictionary appeared...1841	Afghan War in Cabul....1838–1842	J. W. Donaldson.....1811–1861	Strauss, *Mus* 1808–1874
	Troubles with Canada 1841	Louis Napoleon at Boulogne..1840	Sir E. L. Bulwer.....1805–1873	J. Bunsen.....1791–1860
	All the members of Cabinet resign but Mr. Webster.....1841	Espartero in Spain.....1840–1843	E. B. Browning.....1805–1861	Lappenberg.....1795–1865
	John Tyler, Vice-President, becomes President.....1841	Abd-el-Kader 1835–1847	B. Disraeli.....1805–1881	F. C. Schlosser..... –1861
	The Webster-Ashburton Treaty...1842	Frederick William IV.....1840	W. E. Gladstone.....1809	Ranke.....1795
	Seminole War terminated.....1842	War in Scinde.....1843	Sir D. Brewster, *Sci*..1781–1868	Döllinger 1799
	The "Dorr Rebellion," Rhode Island 1842	Free-Church Secession.....1843	Faraday, " ..1791–1867	M. d'Anbigne.....1794
	Settlement of the N. B. Boundary question.....1842	Isabella II. of Spain...1843–1868	Noah Webster, *Am*..1758–1843	
	U. P. Upsher, Sec. of State, and T. W. Gilmer killed by bursting of a gun on steamer Princeton..1843	Canadian Government removed to Montreal.....1844	N. P. Willis, " .1806–1867	
	Fremont Explores the Rocky Mountains.....1843	Charles Albert, Sardinia..1831–1849	G. P. Morris, " .1802–1864	
	First Patent for Fireproof Safe...1843	Trial of O'Connell, *Ire*.....1844	Burton, *Act.*, " .1804–1860	
1845	First Telegraph — Washington to Baltimore 1844		Woodworth, " .1812–1859	
			D. P. Thompson, " .1795–1868	
			Mrs. Sigourney, " .1791–1865	

Table XVI. From A.D. 1845 to A.D. 1865. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	United States History.	Other Countries.	English and American Literature.	Literature and Art of other Countries.
1845	James K. Polk, 11th President, 1795–1839	Great Fire at Quebec 1845	Mrs. Somerville 1780–1872	
	Mexico declares war against the U. S 1845	Sir John Franklin's last voyage, 1845	Whewell 1794–1866	Liebig 1803–1873
	Texas admitted.....1845	Cobden and Bright flourish..1845	R. Murchison.....1792–1871	
	Thornton and party captured by Mexicans.....1846	Irish Famine.....1846	C. Lyell 1797–1875	Helmholtz 1821
	Congress declares "War existed by the act of Mexico".....1846	Austrians seize Cracow.....1846	Hugh Miller.....1802–1856	
	Gun Cotton invented.....1846	Pius IX., *Pp*.....1846	Samuel Brown.....1817–1856	Discovery of Neptune....1846
	Ether first used as an anæsthetic..1846	Corn Laws abolished.....1846	Sir J. Herschell.....1792–1871	
	Iowa admitted. 1846	Lord Elgin, Governor of Canada, 1847	R. Owen.....1804	A. Herzen 1812–1870
	Elias Howe Sewing Machine patented, 1846	Financial Panic in England...1847	J. P. Nichol.....1804	
	Oregon Dispute.....1845–1846	Sikh Wars 1845–46, 1848–49	Sir W. R. Hamilton..1805–1865	Schwanthaler, *A. and S.*, 1802–1848
	Smithsonian Institute founded....1847	Caffre Wars with England, 1847–1848	Wm. Cullen Bryant, *Am.*, 1784–1878	
	American Army enters City of Mexico 1847	Rajah Brooke in Borneo.....1847	Edward Everett, *Am.*.1794–1865	Rauch, *A. and S.*.... 1777–1857
	Treaty of Peace with Mexico.....1848	Joseph Story ..... –1847	Wm. H. Prescott, " .1796–1854	
	Wisconsin admitted 1848	3d French Revolution.....1848	George Bancroft, " .1800	
	Gold first discovered in California..1848	2d French Republic.....1848	R. W. Emerson, " .1803–1882	
	Zachary Taylor, 12th President, 1784–1850	Louis Napoleon, President....1848	N. Hawthorne. " .1804–1864	Mommsen, *Ger*.....1817
	President Taylor forbids the fitting out of filibusting expeditions against Cuba.....1849	Mazzini at Rome 1848	H. Powers, *S*.....1805–1873	
	U. S. Gold Dollars first coined.....1849	Chartist Riots, *Eng*.....1848	L. M. Childs, *Am*.....1802	Curtius, *Ger*.... 1814
	The French Ambassador dismissed from Washington.....1849	Kossuth in Hungary.....1848	Mrs. Judson, " 1817–1854	
		Smith, O'Brien and Mitchell..1848	Washington Irving, *Am.*, 1783–1859	
		Battle of Novara.....1849		
		Canadian Annexation agitated..1849		
		Great Riots in Montreal 1849		
1850	Death of President Taylor.....1850	Palmerston, Prime Minister, *Eng*.....1850–1865	Edgar A. Poe, *Am*..1811–1849	
	N. Y. *Times* established.....1850		M. Stuart, " ..1780–1852	
	Vice-President Fillmore becomes President.....1800–1874	Death of Peel.....1850	W. W. Story, " ..1819	
	California admitted.....1850	Coup d'Etat and Massacre at Paris 1851	H. D. Thoreau, " ..1817–1862	
	Fugitive Slave Act passed 1850		J. R. Lowell. " ..1819	
	Treaty with England for a transit-way across Panama.....1850	Gold discovered in Australia..1851	F. E. Church, *Pt*....1826	
	Kossuth, a Hungarian patriot, arrives in New York.....1851	Lord Derby, Conservative Leader, *Eng*.....1851–1860	C. Darwin.....1809–1882	
	Congressional Library destroyed by fire 1851	Death of Wellington.....1852	Sir C. Eastlake, *Pt*..1793–1865	Overbeck, *Pt*.... 1789–1869
	Dispute with England about the fisheries 1852	Geohertio in Italy.....(1801–1852)	Harriet Beecher Stowe, *Am.*, 1812	
	Death of Daniel Webster and Henry Clay.....1852	Aberdeen Ministry, *Eng*..1852–1855	A. Tennyson 1809	Kaulbach, *Pt*.....1805–1874
	Expedition to Japan.....1852	Great Fire at Montreal.....1852	T. Graham 1805–1869	
	First Street Railroad in New York City 1852	Mantenffel in Russia...(1805–1858)	Charles Dickens ..1812–1870	Jules Janin, *Fr*.....1804–1874
	First Steam Fire Engine used.....1853	Burmese War with England..1852	Wm. M. Thackeray..1811–1863	
	Exploration for a Pacific Railroad..1853	Napoleon III.....1852–1870	Bronte 1816–1855	
	Franklin Pierce, 14th President, 1804–1869	Crimean War 1853–1856	Mrs. Gaskell.....1811–1865	
	Greytown, Central America, bombarded for Spanish insult to U. S. Consul 1853	Russians cross the Pruth.....1853	J. F. Ferrier.....1808–1864	
	World's Fair, or Crystal Palace, opened in New York.....1853	Turkish Fleet at Sinope 1853	Landseer, *Pt*.....1802–1873	
	Dr. Kane sails for the Arctic Sea..1853	Battles of Alma, Balaklava, Inkermann.... 1854	C. Merivale.....1808	
	"Kansas-Nebraska Bill" passed..1854	Siege of Sebastopol.....1854–1855	David Scott, *Pt*.....1806–1849	
	Treaty with Japan.... 1854			
	Reciprocity Treaty with England..1854			
	Repeal of the Compromise of 1820..1854			
	Massachusetts Aid Society send out Settlers to Kansas... 1854			
	A. H. Reeder appointed Governor of Kansas 1854			

Table XVI. From A. D. 1845 to A. D. 1865. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	United States History.	Other Countries.	English and American Literature.	Literature and Art of other Countries.
1855	Territorial Legislature of Kansas meets at Shawnee.....1855	Death of Nicholas.....1855	W. E. Aytonn 1813–1865	Sainte-Beuve 1804–1869
	Free State men meet at Topeka...1855	Alexander II., Emperor of Russia, 1855	H. McCulloch, *Pt*....1806–1867	
	Anti-Slavery excitement in Kansas, 1855	Russia grants Amnesty to Poles, 1856	E. M. Ward, *Pt*.....1816	De Musset.....1810–1857
	Sioux Indians defeated by Gen. Howe, 1855	Annexation of Oude 1856	Philip Bailey.....1816	
	Suspension Bridge over Niagara completed 1855	Panama R. R. to Aspinwall opened 1856	Sydney Dobell.....1824–1874	J. J. Ampere.....1800–1864
	President Pierce recognizes the Filibuster Gen. Walker as President of Nicaragua.....1856	Persian War.....1856–1857	Alexander Smith.....1830–1867	
	Mr. Crampton, British Minister at Washington, dismissed.....1856	Indian Mutiny, *East Indies*, 1857–1858	Ruskin.....1819	Littré 1801
	Severe Fighting in Kansas.....1856	Government of India transferred to Crown.....1858	A. H. Clough.....1819–1861	P. Mer'mée 1803–1870
	James Buchanan, 15th President, 1791–1868	Second Chinese War. The Concha Arrow.....1856–1860	Norman Macleod 1811–1873	
	The Dred-Scott decision rendered by Chief Justice Taney.....1857	Conspiracy Bill. Volunteers, *Eng.*, 1858	Sir G. C. Lewis.....1806–1863	Wagner, *Mus*.....1813
	Troubles with the Mormons.....1857	Cavour in Italy.....(1810–1861)	I. D. Maurice.....1805–1871	
	Great Financial Panic.....1857	Franco-Austrian War.....1859	J. Hill Burton 1809	R. Schumann, *Mus*...1810–1856
	Great religious revivals.....1857	Solferino, Savoy and Nice to France 1859	Dr. J. Brown 1810	
	Dispute with England respecting the right of completion of the Atlantic Telegraph, 1858; Search, 1858	Lord Palmerston resigns and returns 1859	Robert Browning....1812	Ristori, *Act* 1821
	Minnesota admitted.....1858	Stanley, Secretary for India..1859	J. Sparks. *Am*.....1794–1866	
	Mount Vernon purchased by the ladies.....1858		Palfrey, " 1796	Rosa Bonheur, *Pt*...1822
	Oregon admitted.....1859		Goodrich, " 1790–1862	
	Oil first discovered at Titusville, Pa., 1859		E. K. Kane, " 1820–1857	Millet, *Pt*.....1815–1875
	Alexander A. Stephens advocates a Southern Confederacy.....1859			
	Prince of Wales visits the U. S....1859			
1860	Abraham Lincoln, 16th President, 1809–1865	Commercial Treaty England and France 1860	Sir A. Helps.....1817–1875	
	South Carolina passes Ordinance of Secession.....1860	Garibaldi in Sicily.....1860	Froude 1818	Spectrum Analysis ..1861
	Cabinet Officers, U. S. Senators, and Members of Congress from Southern States resign..... 1860	William I., King of Prussia...1861	Kingsley 1819–1875	
	New York Banks suspend Specie Payment.....1861	Victor Emanuel, King of Italy..1861	Layard 1817	
	Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee, Arkansas, North Carolina, Louisiana, and Texas secede.....1861	Otho expelled from Greece....1861	Kinglake 1811	Geibel.....1815
	Provisional Government of Confederate States adopted at Montgomery 1861	Queen Victoria proclaims neutrality 1861	G. H. Lewes.....1817–1878	
	Jefferson Davis, President.....1861	Napoleon III. proclaims neutrality 1861	J. W. Colenso 1814	
	Bombardment of Fort Sumter....1861	Confedrate Alabama sails from England 1862	B. Jowett.....1817	Freiligrath 1810–1876
	Virginia divided into two States..1861	Cotton Famine in England, 1862–1863	A. P. Stanley.....1815	
	Call for 75,000 Volunteers.....1861	George, King of Greece.....1863	M. Arnold.....1822	
	Non-intercourse Proclamation....1861	Insurrection in Poland.....1863	H. Buckle 1822–1862	
	General Scott resigns Command of Army.....1861	French in Mexico.....1864	M. Fuller, *Am*.....1810–1850	Gutzkow.....1811–1878
	Gen. George B. McClellan appointed Commander-in-Chief.....1861	Schleswig-Holstein War 1864	H. Reed, " 1808–1854	
	The Trent affair.....1861	Bismarck 1814	P. Benjamin, " 1809–1864	
	President Lincoln calls for 300,000 more men 1862	Ionian Islands surrender.....1864	J. Q. Adams, " 1767–1848	Freytag, *Ger*.....1788–1861
	Confederate Congress meets in Richmond.....1862		T. H. Benton," 1782–1858	
	Kansas admitted.....1862		Wheaton, " 1785–1848	
	Proclamation of Emancipation....1862		Silliman, " 1779–1864	
	West Virginia admitted.....1862		E. Hitchcock," 1793–1864	
	1st U. S. Colored Regiment enrolled, 1863			
	Anti-draft Riots in New York City..1863			
	Proclamation of Amnesty.....1863			
	Draft of 500,000 men ordered.....1864			
	Nevada admitted.....1864			
	Gen. U. S. Grant appointed Commander-in-Chief 1864			
	President Lincoln calls for 200,000 men 1864			
	Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 repealed, 1864			
1865	Chambersburg, Pa., burned.....1864			Renan, *Fr*.....1823

Table XVII. From A. D. 1865 to A. D. 1880. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	United States History.	Other Countries.	American Literature.	English and other Foreign Literature.
1865	Gen. Lee surrendera.....1865	Gladstone in power.....1865–1874	J. E. Worcester.....1784–1865	J. P. Joule, *Scientist*..1818
	President Lincoln assassinated by Wilkes Booth.....1865	Seven-Weeks War.....1866	J. P. Marsh.....1801	J. G. Stokes, " ..1820
	Vice-Pres. Andrew Jounson becomes President.....1808-1875	Battle of Sadowa.....1866	Albert Barnes.....1798–1870	W. Tyndall, " ..1820
	Booth, the assassin, mortally wounded and captured.....1865	North German Confederation, 1866	H. W. Longfellow..1807	Sir Wm. Thompson, *Scientist*..1824
	15th Amendment submitted...1865	Venice falls to Italy.....1866	J. G. Whittier.....1807	T. H. Huxley, " ..1825
	Atlantic Cable successfully laid, 1866	Lord Russell's Reform Bill, *Eng*..1866	W. D. Whitney.....1827	M. Taine, *Fr*.....1828
	The Freedmen's Bureau Bill, and Civil Rights Bill passed over President Johnson's veto.....1866	Fenianism in Ireland and United States.....1867	T. B. Read.....1825–1872	E. Angier, " 1820
	Nebraska admitted.....1867	Mr. Disraeli's Reform Bill.....1867	J. G. Saxe.....1816	T. Gautier," 1811–1872
	Horace Greeley and others sign Jefferson Davis' bail bond..1867	Maximilian shot in Mexico.....1867	F. Wayland.....1796–1865	G. Doré, " Art.....1832
	Alaska purchased from Russia..1867	The Dominion of Canada formed..1867	Journalists:—	O. Feuillet, " 1822
	President Johnson impeached by the House and acquitted..1868	Francis Joseph crowned at Pesth, 1867	G. D. Prentice.....1802–1870	Dumas (fil), *Fr*.....1824
	Ulysses S. Grant, 18th President.....1869	Gladstone Ministry, *Eng*.....1868	Horace Greeley..1811–1872	A. Trollope, *novelist*..1815
	Death of Geo. Peabody (Philanthropist).....1869	Abysainian Expedition.....1868	H. J. Raymond....1820–1869	C. Reade " ..1814
		Isabella II. of Spain deposed....1868	Thurlow Weed.....1797	W. Collins, " ..1824
		Dis-establishment of Irish Church..1869	J. W. Forney.....1817	Mrs. Cross (George Eliot), *novelist*.....1822
			J. G. Bennett.....1795–1872	Mrs. Oliphant, *novelist*, 1820–1857
			J. G. Holland.....1819	Mrs. L. Linton, *novelist*..1822
			C. Anthon.....1797–1867	Herbert Spencer...1820
			Haliburton (Sam. Slick), 1802–1865	Geo. MacDonald 1820
			Hildreth.....1807-1865	Consin, *Fr.*, *Phil*.....1792–1867
			Rev. Dr. McClintock..1814-1870	
			Mrs. Parton (Fanny Fern), 1811–1870	
			J. T. Field.....1820	
			D. G. Mitchell (Ik Marvel), 1822	
			J. S. C. Abbott.....1805–1877	
			J. G. Motley.....1814–1877	
			C. F. Browne (Artemus Ward), 1834–1867	
			Cary Sisters died.....1871	
1870	Death of Gen. Robert E. Lee..1870	Manitoba joins the Dominion of Canada.....1870	J. Parton.....1822	Swinburne.....1837
	Congress repeals the Income Tax, 1871	Land Bill of Ireland 1870	S. A. Allibone.....1816	Holman Hunt, *Pt*.. ..1827
	Great Riot (Chinamen's) in San Francisco.....1871	Franco-Prussian War 1870–1871	O. W. Holmes.....1809	D. G. Rossetti.....1828
	Orange Riot (attacked by Catholics) in New York.....1871	British Columbia joins Dominion of Canada.....1871	E. P. Whipple.....1819	Millais, *Pt*.....1829
	The Great Chicago Fire...1871	Napoleon surrenders Sedan.....1870	R. H. Stoddard.....1825	E. A. Freeman.....1823
	Great Forest Fires in Wisconsin and Michigan.....1871	English Educational Bill.....1870	W. Whitman.....1819	J. Foster.....1812–1876
	W. M. Tweed and others arrested for fraud in New York City.....1871	Paris, Metz, and Strasburg surrender.....1871	T. W. Higginson.....1823	Flaubert, *Fr*.....1821
	Great earthquake and loss of life in California.....1872	Meeting of the Alabama Claims Commission at Geneva.....1871	J. T. Trowbridge....1827	Laboulayé.....1811
	The World's Peace Jubilee, Boston.....1872	William I., Emperor of Germany..1871	G. W. Curtis.....1824	Castelar, *Sp*.....1832
	The Great Boston Fire.....1872	Rome the Capital of Italy 1871	W. C. Tyler.....1835	H. V. Sybel, *Ger*.....1817
	Barnum's Museum destroyed by fire in New York.....1872	3d French Republic.....1871	R. G. White.....1822	Hartmann, " 1821–1872
	Settlement of the Alabama Claims.....1872	Univeraity Tests abolished, *Eng*..1871	J. R. Lowell.....1819	M. Thierry, *Fr.*, *His*..1797–1873
	U. S. Troops defeated by Modec Indians.....1873	Army Purchase abolished, *Eng*...1871	R. H. Dana, Jr.....1815	Tulloch, *Ger.*, *Theol*..1822
	Gen. Canby and Rev. Dr. Thomas murdered by Modoc Indians.....1873	War in Cuba.....1871	Bayard Taylor.....1825–1878	M. Guizot, *Fr*.....1787–1874
	Failure of Jay Cooke & Co. and others.....1873	The Ballot passed, *Eng*.....1871	W. L. Garrison.....1805–1876	Hans Christian Andersen, *Dan*.....1805–1875
	Capt. Jack and other Modoc Indians executed 1873	Lord Dufferin Governor General of Canada.....1872	Rev. Dr. Bushnell....1802–1876	
	Payment of the Geneva Award..1873	Prince Edward Island joins Canada, 1872	J. W. Draper.....1811	
	Death of Charles Sumner.....1874	The Jesuits expelled from Germany, 1872	Dr. Austin Flint.....1812 Son, 1836	
	Mill River (Mass.) Reservoir disaster.....1874	Russia quarrels with Khiva.....1872	G. S. Hillard.....1808–1879	
	Kalakaua, King of Hawaiian Islands, visits the U. S.....1874	Scotch Educational Bill.....1872	Rev. Dr. Hodge.....1797–1878	
		Marshal McMahon, President of France.....1872		
		France pays the War Indemnity to Germany 1873		
		The German Stamp Tax 1873		
		Irish Educational Bill fails.....1874		
		Disraeli, Prime Minister.....1874		
		Amadeus. Spanish Republic. Don Carlos, Alphonso, *Sp*.....1870–1875		

Table XVII. From A. D. 1865 to A. D. 1880. In Periods of Five Years.

A.D.	United States History.	Other Countries.	American Literature.	English and other Foreign Literature.
1875	East River spanned by an Ice Bridge, 1875	Re-opening of the Eastern Question ---1875	Bret Harte---1837	Virchow, *Ger* ---1821
	100th Anniversary of the battles of Concord and Lexington---1875	Prince of Wales visits India---1875	Joaquin Miller---1841	Messonier, *Fr.*, *Pt*---1822
	Centennial Celebration of Bunker Hill ---1875	French Legislative Body re-organized---1875	W. D. Howells---1837	Zeller, *Fr.*, *His*---1820
	Death of Vice-President Henry Wilson---1875	English Channel Tunnel Bill passed, *Fr*---1875	Edward Eggleston---1837	Auerbach, *Ger* ---1812
	William B. Astor died---1875	Japan Cedes Territory to Russia, 1875	Miss Dodge (Gail Hamilton), 1838	Figuier, *Fr*---1819
	A. T. Stewart died---1876	Russia Conquers Khiva---1876	W. T. Adams (Oliver Optics), 1822	Oscar Wilde, *Esthete*---1857
	Dom Pedro, Emperor of Brazil, visits U. S---1876	Meeting of New French Chambers ---1876	Judge Tourgee, "Fool's Errand" ---—	Du Bois Raymond, *Ger*---1818
	Whisky Ring broken up---1875–1876	England purchases the Suez Canal---1876	S. L. Clemens (Mark Twain), 1835	Ewald, *Ger*---1802–1875
	Opening of Centennial Exhibition, Philadelphia---1876	Victoria proclaimed Empress of India ---1876	D. R. Locke (Petroleum V. Nasby) ---1833	Flaubert, *Fr* ---1821
	Gen. Custer and 311 U. S. Troops slain by Sioux Indians, led by Sitting Bull---1876	Disraeli elevated to the Peerage, 1876	H. W. Shaw (Josh Billings), 1818	Cassagnac, *Fr* ---1806
	Colorado admitted---1876	New Marriage Law, *Austria*---1876	E. E. Hale---1822	Dudevant (George Sand), *Fr.*, 1804–1876
	First Wire of East River Bridge---1876	The German the Official Language in Prussian Poland---1876	Miss Phelps, "Gates Ajar," 1844	Du Chaillu, *Fr*---1835
	Brooklyn Theater burned---1876	Deposition of Catholic Bishops in Germany---1876	T. B. Aldrich---1836	Haeckel, *Ger*---1834
	Ashtabula (Ohio) Railroad disaster, 1876	Russo-Turkish War ---1877–1878	W. Greene---1811	Holse, *Dan*---1811
	Death of Cornelius Vanderbilt---1877	England neutral in Russo-Turkish War ---1877	H. W. Beecher---1813	Victor Hugo, *Fr*---1802
	The Electoral Commission Bill passed, 1877	Death of M. Thiers---1877	Guyot ---1807	Jacoby, *Ger*---1805–1877
	Electoral Commission Count declare the election of R. B. Hayes---1877	Marquis of Lorne, Viceroy of Canada ---1878	Clara Louise Kellogg, *Singer*, 1842	Jananschek, *Act* ---1830
	Rutherford B. Hayes, 19th President ---1877	Treaty of San Stefano and Berlin, 1878	Charles March---1825	Pasteur, *Fr.*, *Chemist* ---1822
	Great Railroad Strikes and Riots---1877	Great Commercial depression in England---1878	Thos. Nast, *Caricaturist* ---1840	Patti, *Singer*, *Spain* ---1843
	Gen. Miles whips Nez Perces Indians, 1877	British-Afghanistan War---1878	E. C. Stedman---1833	Reclus, *Fr* ---1830
	Extradition Treaty with Spain ---1877	International Exposition at Paris, 1878	C. D. Warner---1829	Remusat, *Fr*---1797–1875
	Wm. M. Tweed died---1878	Marriage of King Alfonso, *Sp*---1878	Henry James, Jr---—	Lord Lytton (Owen Meredith), 1831
	Wm. Cullen Bryant died---1878	Death of Victor Emanuel---1878	A. Winchell ---1824	
	Yellow Fever rages at Vicksburg, Memphis, etc---1878	Death of Pope Pius IX---1878	L. M. Alcott---1833	
	Gold at Par for the first time since 1862---1878	Leo XIII. elected Pope---1878		
	Specie Payment resumed---1879	Austria occupies Bosnia---1878		
	Anti-Chinese Bill vetoed---1879	The Zulu War---1879		
	Extra Session of Congress called---1879	M. Julius Grevy, President of France ---1789		
	Proclamation warning settlers from the Indian Territory---1879			
	Yellow Fever at Memphis---1879			
	Relief ordered by U. S. Government in aid of sufferers---1879			
	Steam Yacht Jeannette sent out by James Gordon Bennett to discover the N. W. passage---1879			
	Arrival at San Francisco of Gen. Grant, homeward bound on his 2½ years' tour around the World---1879			
1880	The French Transatlantic Cable landed---1879			

KEY to Serial Tables from B.C. 1500 to A. D. 1880. As several of the abbreviations used in the two series of tables indicated are the same, one key will apply to both. These abbreviations are as follows:—*Gr.*, Greek; *S. Gr.*, Spartan or Sicilian; *Per.*, Persian; *Mac.*, Macedonian; *P. C.*, Phœnician and Carthaginian; *Rom.*, Roman; *Ger.*, German; *Fr.*, French; *Sp.*, Spanish; *Rus.*, Russian; *Prus.*, Prussian; *Scan.*, Scandinavian; *Eng*, English; *Scot.*, Scotch; *Ire.*, Irish; *Dtch.*, Dutch; *Port.*, Portuguese; *It.* Italian; *Am.*, American; *Pp.*, Pope; *Pt.*, Painter; *Mu*, Musician; *A. and S.*, Architect and Sculptor; *Act.*, Actor; *Theol.*, Theologian; *Phil.*, Philosopher; *His.*, Historian.

Where more than one date is given, the meaning intended is, in the case of general facts, commencement and termination; in the case of rulers, date of beginning and ending of rule; in the case of eminent persons, birth and death. The Interrogation-point suggests doubt as to the date; *fl.* stands for flourished, and one date appended to a name has the same import. In the case of living men, one date indicates the birth. In the case of Hebrew prophets, the dates indicate the supposed period of prophesying. With these remarks it is believed that the tables will be intelligible.

THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.

Showing their Population, Area, Religion, Government, Capital, Debt, Standing Army, Navy, Miles of Railroad, and Trade with the United States.

Country.	Population.	Area in English Square Miles.	Population to Square Mile.	Standing Army Peace-Footing.	Navy, No. of Vessels.	Miles of Railroad.	National Debt.	Capital.	Prevailing Religion.	Government.	U. S. Commerce with Foreign Countries 1879. Imports.	Exports.
Chinese Empire. ..	433,000,000	3,924,627	110	270,000	38	10	Unknown	Pekin.....	Buddhic	Monarchy	16,565,979	4,661,957
British Empire.....	237,391,788	7,788,347	30	280,450	531	26,988	3,888,907,980	London.....	Protestant	Monarchy	See note	See note
Russian Empire....	86,952,347	8,404,767	10	768,427	223	12,945	2,840,597,635	St. Petersburg..	Greek Church..	Monarchy	662,750	16,725,463
United States	50,155,783	3,026,504	10	25,000	146	81,955	1,942,172,295	Washington ...	Protestant	Republic		
German Empire....	42,727,260	208,744	201	419,738	74	19,020	3,000,000,000	Berlin	Protestant	Empire*	35,565,217	57,412,277
Austria-Hungary ..	37,700,000	240,940	158	292,166	43	11,168	1,625,096,042	Vienna	Catholic	Monarchy	315,813	2,641,707
France.	36,905,788	204,096	182	502,697	492	14,100	3,513,724,650	Paris.....	Catholic	Republic	55,095,708	92,558,736
Japan	33,200,000	156,604	214	78,512	17	67	145,000,000	Tokio.....	Buddhic	Monarchy	9,894,884	2,676,924
Great Britain & Ireland	34,160,000	121,230	268	135,452	222	17,092	3,888,907,980	London	Protestant	Monarchy	111,971,760	363,013,646
Turkey	31,669,147	860,562	17	459,360	170	1,200	1,212,772,200	Constantinople.	Mahomedan ...	Monarchy	656,646	4,719,302
Italy	27,769,475	114,406	243	199,557	81	5,000	1,977,117,845	Rome.	Catholic	Monarchy.....	7,884,327	8,658,233
Spain	16,835,506	195,775	92	151,668	138	4,112	2,401,612,001	Madrid.....	Catholic	Monarchy	78,098,802	27,910,942
Brazil.....	9,930,478	3,288,110	3	16,055	63	1,364	368,351,139	Rio de Janerio..	Catholic	Monarchy.	30,385,638	25,522,401
Mexico	9,276,079	761,640	12	21,136	4	403	395,000,000	Mexico	Catholic	Republic	14,047,819	6,761,284
Persia	6,500,000	648,000	10	30,000	none	none	No debt	Teheran	Mahomedan ...	Monarchy	none	none
Morocco	600,000	260,000	25	20,000	none	none	3,000,000	⟨Morocco..... ⟩Fez-Mequinez	Mahomedan ...	Monarchy	none	none
Siam.....	5,700,000	310,000	25	none	none	none	No debt	Bangkok.....	Buddhic	Monarchy	none	none
Roumania.....	5,376,000	49,262	105	18,000	9	791	90,000,000	Bucharest.....	Greek Church..	Monarchy	none	none
Belgium	5,336,185	11,373	469	46,383	10	2,300	232,684,553	Brussels	Catholic	Monarchy	4,209,232	28,522,401
Egypt.....	5,250,000	212,660	24	14,000	14	1,163	450,000,000	Cairo	Mahomedan ...	——‡	See †	See Turkey.
Portugal	4,441,037	35,812	121	62,920	34	709	428,977,613	Lisbon.....	Catholic	Monarchy.....	454,385	4,927,161
Norway & Sweden.	4,429,713	170,980	25	36,495	42	3,051	39,241,142	Stockholm	Protestant	Confederation..	213,924	2,147,252
Canada	3,602,321	3,483,952	1	3,000	7	4,929	112,248,378	Ottawa	Protestant	Colony.....	27,856,944	32,048,314
Holland or Netherlands	3,579,529	12,680	282	61,803	105	1,262	391,242,322	Amsterdam	Protestant	Monarchy	10,037,059	16,461,262
Abyssinia.....	3,000,000	158,000						Magdala.....	Coptic Chris'ns.	Monarchy		
Columbia	2,951,211	432,400	6	2,600	none	42	15,390,304	Bogota	Catholic	Republic	7,187,113	5,771,454
Madagascar	2,900,000	228,570	10					Antananarivo ,		Monarchy	none	none
Switzerland.....	2,776,035	15,991	181	106,102	none	1,500	6,225,000	Berne	Protestant	Republic.....		
Peru	2,699,945	502,760	5	13,200	18	744	213,482,680	Lima	Catholic	Republic.....	2,370,557	1,305,362
Chili.....	2,375,971	130,977	16	3,500	12	977	60,741,469	Santiago.....	Catholic	Republic.....	642,715	1,256,023
Denmark	1,912,142	14,553	131	35,703	33	819	52,000,000	Copenhagen ...	Protestant	Monarchy	863,856	3,194,578
Norway.....	1,806,900	122,280	14	18,000	32	510	13,526,128	Christiana	Protestant	Confederation..	See N'w'y	& Sweden.
Venezuela	1,784,197	368,235	5	5,494	none	39	62,659,687	Caraccas.....	Catholic	Republic.....	5,249,717	2,052,435
Bolivia	1,742,352	500,870	4	4,025	37	none	17,500,000	Chuquisaca	Catholic	Republic.....		
Argentine Republic	1,715,681	871,000	2	8,283	28	1,466	68,416,043	Buenos Ayres..	Catholic	Republic.....	3,519,105	2,128,012
Servia	1,720,270	18,787	87	14,150	none		5,000,000	Belgrade	Catholic	Monarchy	none	none
Greece.....	1,457,894	19,041	73	12,397	21	7	98,012,000	Athens	Greek Church..	Monarchy	409,328	285,019
Guatemala.....	1,190,754	40,778	29	3,200	none	none	3,877,384	Guatemala.....	Catholic	Republic.....	See note	See note
Ecuador	1,100,000	218,984	3	1,200	3	75	17,500,000	Quito	Catholic	Republic.....	See note	See note
Hayti.....	1,000,000	29,000	20	6,528	2	none	548,022	Port au Prince.	Catholic	Republic.....	3,577,824	3,262,642
Liberia	1,000,000	25,000	25					Monrovia	Protestant	Republic.....	63,360	130,929
San Salvador.....	600,000	9,500	75	1,000	none	none	5,000,000	San Salvador ..	Catholic	Republic.....	See note	See note
Uruguay.....	455,000	70,000	6	4,060	3	340	43,615,000	Montevidio	Catholic	Republic.....	1,780,140	939,362
Nicaragua	300,000	49,000	5	6,000	none	none	9,000,000	Nicaragua.....	Catholic	Republic.....	See note	See note
Paraguay	221,000	57,223	4	2,000	none	47	12,098,417	Assumption....	Catholic	Republic	See note	See note
Honduras	351,700	47,092	7	1,500	none	56	37,000,000	Comayagua....	Catholic	Republic.....	See note	See note
Costa Rica.....	185,000	21,495	8	900	none	29	12,000,000	San Jose	Catholic	Republic	See note	See note
San Domingo.....	150,000	20,000	8	4,000	5	none	3,780,000	San Domiago..	St. Catholic....	Republic	657,509	803,315
Hawaii	60,000	7,600	8	none	none	none	450,000	Honolulu	Protestant	Monarchy	3,264,562	2,509,898

Note.—Trade with the British Possessions, Great Britain and Ireland excluded, was—Imports, 20,128,494; Exports, 29,373,079. With South American Ports not given above—Exports, 92,747. With the Central American States—consisting of San Salvador, Nicaragua, Honduras, Guatemala, and Costa Rica—Imports, 2,497,134; Exports, 1,483,389. * The Empire forms a Customs League named "Zollverein." † The greater part of this trade is with Cuba. ‡ A Province of Turkey, yet practically independent.

THE COMMERCE OF THE WORLD.

The following table shows a comparison of the Commerce, Population, Annual Imports and Exports of the several geographical divisions of the world for 1876—the latest published statistics.

	Population.	Commerce.	Imports.	Exports.
Europe	289,000,000	$9,976,000,000	$5,650,400,000	$4,336,200,000
America	84,840,000	2,140,000,000	972,800,000	1,167,200,000
Asia	806,700,000	1,131,000,000	489,000,000	641,600,000
Australasia	1,800,000	462,000,000	237,800,000	224,400,000
Africa	80,000,000	291,000,000	134,400,000	156,600,000
Total	1,262,340,000	$14,000,000,000	$7,474,400,000	$6,526,000,000

The following shows the variations in the total imports and exports of all the countries of the world from 1867 to 1876:

	Annual Imports.	Annual Exports.
1867-68.....	$5,828,600,000	$5,225,000,000
1869-70.....	6,081,400,000	5,503,600,000
1872-73.....	7,772,000,000	6,669,200,000
1874-75.....	7,251,400,000	6,448,400,000
1876.....	7,474,400,000	6,526,000,000

These figures carry with them their own importance.

Countries.	Upper House. How chosen.	Upper House. Length term.	Upper House. No.	Lower House. How chosen.	Lower House. Length term.	Lower House. No.	Remarks.
Argentine Republic	State Legislatures	----	28	Popular suffrage	----	50	Compensation, $3,500 per annum.
Austria	Crown and hereditary	Life	104	Property-holding citizens	3 yrs.	253	Elected at different times, as the crown may order.
Belgium	Citizens, property test	8 yrs.	68	Property-holding citizens	4	136	Only natives eligible. One Representative to 40,000 inhabitants.
Brazil	Crown and indirect election	Life	77	Indirect election	4	122	Senators must be 40 years old; Deputies Catholics; both natives.
Canada	Governor General	Life	58	Popular suffrage	5	206	Slight property qualification required of voters.
Chili		9	20	Popular suffrage	3	--	One Representative for 20,000 inhabitants.
Colombia (U.S.)	State Legislatures	----	27	Popular suffrage	----	66	Each State has 43 Senators. Representatives according to population.
Denmark	Hereditary and elect'v	Life or 9 yrs.	66	Citizens 30 years old	3	102	Members of either house must be at least 25 years old.
Ecuador	Popular suffrage	----	18	Popular suffrage	----	30	Congress meets annually, September 15.
France	Indirect election	Life or 9 yrs.	300	Popular suffrage	4	538	Senators must be 40 years old; Deputies 25.
Germany	Appointed by States	----	59	Popular suffrage	3	397	Prussia has 17 members Upper House; 236 of the Lower House.
Great Britain	Hereditary, crown and church	Life	537	Household suffrage	Until dissolution	658	The election is by ballot. A member of the House must be 21 years of age. No compensation is allowed.
Greece	Elected by the people	4	188		----	--	Only one body, called Boule.
Hungary	Hereditary and church	Life	705	Popular vote	3	445	The citizens of full age may vote, if they pay taxes amounting to $4 a year.
Italy	Hereditary and crown	----	270	Popular vote	5	508	A voter must he 25 years of age, and taxpayer to the extent of $8 a year.
Mexico	State Legislatures	6	54	Popular vote	2	331	Senators must be 30 years of age; Representatives 25.
Netherlands	States, from rich	9	39	People, property test	4	86	Property test for voters exceptionally high. Clergymen disfranchised.
New South Wales	British Crown	Life	39	Popular vote	----	102	No property test for voters, and the election is by ballot.
New Zealand	British Crown	Life	45	Popular vote	5	88	A moderate property test required of voters and legislators.
Nicaragua	Popular vote	6	10	Popular vote	4	11	No property test is required.
Norway	Popular vote	3	28	Popular vote	3	86	Slight property test for voters, who must be 25 years of age.
Peru	Districts	6	44	Indirect election	2	110	The ratio of representation is one member for 20,000 inhabitants.
Portugal	Hereditary	Life	133	People, property test	4	99	Besides a property test, there are several personal tests applied.
Prussia	Mostly nereditary	Life	--	Popular vote	3	433	Electors must be at least 25 years of age.
Queensland	British crown	Life	30	Popular election	5	55	Voters may vote where they have property and where they reside.
Roumania	Indirect election	----	76	Indirect election	----	157	The people elect the Electors and they choose the Legislators.
South Australia	Popular election	12	18	Popular election	3	46	Members of the Upper House must be 30 years of age; of the Lower, 21.
Spain	Hereditary, elective and crown	10 or life	--		5	332	The Senate has no fixed number of members, nor uniform method of designation.
Sweden	Popular election	9	137	Popular election	3	204	Senators receive no pay; Representatives, small salaries.
Switzerland	Cantons	----	44	Popular election	3	135	Any voter, except a clergyman, is eligible to either house.
Tasmania	Elected, property test	----	16	Elected, smaller property test	----	32	Besides elected Legislators, are ex-officio members holding other important offices, and resident subjects possessing degrees
Victoria		10	36		3	86	Clergymen and felons are ineligible as legislators.
Western Australia	Appointed	----	7	Elected	----	14	Slight property test for voters. A legislator must hold real estate to the value of $5,000.
United States	State Legislatures	6	76	Popular vote	2	325	A Senator must be 30 years of age; a Representative 25. Each house sole judge of the election and qualification of its members.

Note.—In the preparation of the above tables, reliance has mainly been placed upon the *Statesman's Manual* for 1881. No country which does not enjoy any of the rights of self-government, however important in other respects, has a place in this connection. Of the several States of the United States it may be added, that each has two legislative bodies, both elected by popular vote, and that, under the 14th amendment to the Constitution of the United States, no citizen can be deprived of the right of suffrage on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. No State allows female suffrage, nor does any require an intelligence test.

CONGRESSIONAL APPORTIONMENT.

The number of Representatives in the popular branch of the Congress of the United States to which each State will be entitled, from March 4, 1883, to March 4, 1893, based on the tenth census, is as follows:

Alabama 8	Iowa 11	Missouri 14	Rhode Island 2
Arkansas 5	Kansas 7	Nebraska 3	South Carolina 7
California 6	Kentucky 11	Nevada 1	Tennessee 10
Colorado 1	Louisiana 6	New Hampshire 2	Texas 11
Connecticut 4	Maine 4	New Jersey 7	Vermont 2
Delaware 1	Maryland 6	New York 34	Virginia 10
Florida 2	Massachusetts 12	North Carolina 9	West Virginia 4
Georgia 10	Michigan 11	Ohio 21	Wisconsin 9
Illinois 20	Minnesota 5	Oregon 1	
Indiana 13	Mississippi 7	Pennsylvania 28	Total 325

INDUSTRIES OF NATIONS, IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS, IN 1870 AND 1880.

	Commerce.		Manufactures.		Mining.		Agriculture.		Carrying Trade, etc.		Banking.		Total.		Increase.
	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	
Great Britain	2661	3467	3123	3788	224	316	1265	1168	544	783	389	525	8206	10047	1841
United States	837	1464	3318	4320	185	350	2019	2554	642	808	195	253	7196	9749	2553
France	1211	1615	2136	2360	44	58	2004	1946	204	302	146	165	5745	6446	701
Germany	1314	1868	1659	2077	68	102	1508	1654	204	336	122	136	4875	6173	1298
Russia	535	929	997	1114	39	54	1703	1800	136	214	58	73	3168	4184	716
Austria	404	681	890	1002	24	34	1168	1280	78	118	68	83	2632	3198	566
Italy	360	467	501	559	10	10	632	705	54	73	24	29	1581	1843	262
Spain	151	185	375	428	24	34	462	530	34	58	10	15	1056	1250	194
Belgium	311	501	355	414	29	39	165	170	34	39	15	15	909	1178	269
Holland	345	535	180	204	....	....	199	224	19	24	63	68	806	1055	249
Sweden and Norway	131	175	175	195	10	10	229	253	44	73	15	15	604	721	117
Denmark	73	92	68	88	....	...	122	131	5	10	5	5	273	326	53
Portugal	49	63	49	54	...	....	112	122	3	5	5	5	218	249	31
Turkey, etc	404	306	389	321	....	....	258	180	15	29	15	15	1081	851	....
Australia	277	433	44	63	44	29	170	253	5	15	24	49	564	842	278
Canada	161	170	170	224	....	....	248	292	24	44	10	19	613	749	136
South America	414	438	88	107	34	39	340	389	15	29	19	24	910	1026	116
South Africa	39	83	10	15	10	19	24	34	....	....	....	....	83	151	68
THE WORLD	9677	13472	14527	17333	745	1094	12628	13685	2060	2960	1183	1491	40820	50038	9448

NOTE.—The average production of human industry per head is $100, an increase of 12 per cent. since 1870.

MONEY OF ALL NATIONS COMPARED WITH POPULATION AND TRADE.

	Paper Money, in Million Dollars.		Increase, Million Dollars.	Actual Gold Currency, Million Dollars.	Silver Currency, Million Dollars.	Total of Specie and Paper, Million Dollars.	Specie per Inhabitant, in Dollars.	Paper per Inhabitant, in Dollars.	Total Specie and Paper per Inhabitant.	Specie Ratio to Commerce.	Paper Ratio to Commerce.	Total.	Money Ratio to All Industries.
	1870	1880											
United States	686	642	....	375	151	1168	10.56	12.89	23.35	36 to 100	44 to 100	80 to 100	12 to 100
Great Britain	199	219	20	603	93	915	20.19	6.32	26.51	21 "	7 "	28 "	9 "
France	345	438	93	715	414	1567	30.40	11.93	42.32	71 "	28 "	99 "	24 "
Germany	219	204	....	321	209	734	11.68	4.62	16.30	28 "	11 "	39 "	12 "
Russia	569	866	297	107	58	1031	2.19	10.95	13.14	18 "	93 "	111 "	24 "
Austria	195	311	116	44	29	384	1.95	7.79	9.74	11 "	45 "	56 "	12 "
Italy	253	316	63	39	49	404	3.40	10.95	14.35	21 "	70 "	91 "	22 "
Spain and Portugal	39	73	34	195	83	351	13.86	3.65	17.51	124 "	33 "	157 "	30 "
Holland	54	73	19	19	58	150	19.46	18.25	37.71	15 "	14 "	29 "	15 "
Belgium	44	63	19	107	63	233	30.89	11.43	42.32	34 "	13 "	47 "	21 "
Norway and Sweden	39	44	5	44	10	98	6.32	5.10	11.42	18 "	15 "	33 "	9 "
Switzerland	5	20	15	58	34	112	33.08	6.81	39.89	.....	.....	.....	.....
Greece, Turkey, etc	24	107	83	5	5	117	.49	4.86	5.35	4 "	40 "	44 "	14 "
South America	175	326	151	15	41	385	2.19	12.40	14.59	13 "	74 "	87 "	32 "
Australia	15	20	5	44	5	69	17.27	7.30	24.57	10 "	4 "	14 "	7 "
Canada	20	39	19	5	5	49	2.19	9.25	11.44	6 "	24 "	30 "	6 "
Japan	....	127	127	5	4	136	.....	2.65	2.65	.....	.....	.....	.....
THE WORLD	2881	3888	1066	2701	1314	7903	8.76	8.51	17.27	30 to 100	29 to 100	59 to 100	16 to 100

NOTE.—The estimates of gold and silver coin are mainly from the Washington Mint Report. India is not included; say about 584 million dollars of silver, 49 of gold and 58 of paper.

THE ART OF WAR.

Increase or Decrease of Armaments since 1869.

Countries.	Cost of Army. 000's are sup's'd. 1869	Cost of Army. 000's are sup's'd. 1880	Cost of Navy. 000's suppressed 1869	Cost of Navy. 000's suppressed 1880	Total Exp'd't're 000's suppressed 1869	Total Exp'd't're 000's suppressed 1880	Total Force in 1869.	Total Force, 1880.	Ratio to Popula'n. 1869	Ratio to Popula'n. 1880
United States	77,840	38,920	19,460	13,622	97,300	52,542	64,000	33,000	0.17	0.07
Great Britain	72,975	75,849	55,661	50,596	128,636	126,490	268,700	258,000	0.87	0.74
France	82,705	109,463	38,920	30,650	121,625	140,113	493,000	523,000	1.30	1.41
Germany	58,380	85,138	4,379	14,109	62,759	99,247	380,000	448,000	1.00	1.01
Russia	87,570	141,085	17,028	20,947	104,598	162,032	876,000	835,000	1.19	1.04
Austria	46,218	60,326	4,379	3,892	50,597	64,218	283,000	298,000	0.81	0.78
Italy	30,163	42,812	6,325	10,703	36,488	53,515	199,000	216,000	0.76	0.77
Spain	20,433	23,839	5,838	5,352	26,271	29,191	174,000	120,000	1.08	0.80
Holland	5,838	9,730	6,325	5,838	12,163	15,568	82,000	86,000	2.34	2.15
Belgium	6,811	9,244	—	—	6,811	9,224	73,000	46,000	1.46	0.81
Denmark	1,946	2,433	973	1,460	2,919	3,893	44,000	40,000	2 50	2.02
Sweden and Norway	3,406	6,811	1,460	1,946	4,866	8,757	60,000	62,000	1.00	0.95
Portugal	3,406	3,892	1,460	1,460	4,866	5,352	26,000	34,000	0.65	0.80
Turkey	18,001	9,730	4,865	2,433	22,866	12,163	188,000	103,000	1.70	2.10
Greece	973	1,460	487	487	1,460	1,947	9,000	24,000	0.60	1.50
Brazil	7,298	7,298	3,892	4,865	11,190	12,163	7,200	21,000	0.80	0.21
The World	523,963	628,075	171,452	168,360	695,415	796,435	3,291700	3147000	0.93	0.76

CAPITAL, OR WEALTH OF NATIONS.

Countries.	Million Dollars. 1870	Million Dollars. 1880	Increase Millions	Ratio per Inhabitant. 1870	Ratio per Inhabitant. 1880	Ratio free of National Debt. 1870	Ratio free of National Debt. 1880
Great Britain	40,428	43,590	3,162	$1,284	$1,265	$1,158	$1,153
France	34,649	36,084	1,435	910	978	847	878
United States	30,747	38,336	7,589	798	769	735	730
Germany	26,028	29,555	3,527*	686	657	667	632
Russia	16,006	17,222	1,216	214	214	200	175
Austria	13,768	14,838	1,070†	384	379	336	326
Italy	8,514	9,049	535	321	316	253	229
Holland	5,254	5,497	243	1,474	1,377	1,362	1,275
Belgium	4,379	4,573	194	866	817	837	759
Spain	6,033	6,680	647	370	399	287	248
Portugal	1,241	1,323	82	311	316	238	219
Sweden and Norway	3,371	3,590	219	560	550	555	535
Denmark	1,654	1,703	49	924	866	890	842
Turkey, Greece, etc.	3,648	3,697	49	151	151	127	92
Australia	1,683	2,384	701	924	837	827	681
Canada	2,549	3,094	545	671	720	752	681
South Africa	345	477	132	389	350	379	316
South America	4,379	4,621	242	175	180	146	190
The World	204,676	226,313	21,637	545	$ 550	$ 496	491

*Including $1,362,000,000 for Alsace and Lorraine. †Including $267,575,000 for Bosnia.

EARNINGS OR INCOME OF NATIONS.*

Countries.	Million Dollars. 1870	Million Dollars. 1880	Increase Millions	Ratio per Inhabitant. 1870	Ratio per Inhabitant. 1880	Ditto free of Taxes. 1870	Ditto free of Taxes. 1880
United States	5,167	7,327	2,160	$134.18	$135.82	$116.23	$123.03
Great Britain	4,675	5,624	949	148.55	163.05	129.11	143.66
France	3,834	4,510	676	100.86	112.14	85.66	90.59
Germany	3,415	4,140	725	90.04	91.10	81.85	80.19
Russia	2,754	3,075	321	38.34	38.43	32.51	32.23
Austria	1,961	2,238	277	54.44	57.32	45.49	47.44
Italy	1,134	1,226	92	42.85	43.21	30.67	29.51
Spain	774	905	131	46.99	54.86	36.85	43.58
Belgium	491	574	83	97.79	102.98	86.72	89.71
Holland	433	506	73	123.67	126.77	107.74	109.60
Sweden and Norway	433	511	78	72.16	78.59	66.95	71.31
Denmark	185	214	29	107.08	102.52	97.34	99.29
Portugal	156	170	14	39.00	39.08	31.94	30.36
Turkey, Greece, etc.	457	404	—	20.68	19.46	17.64	16.87
Australia	307	433	126	168.33	151.30	141.81	123.58
Canada	457	574	117	121.95	134.72	113.84	124.46
South Africa	63	88	25	70.54	65.20	65.28	52.06
South America	803	920	117	32.62	37.34	25.38	29.94
The World	27,499	33,439	5,939	$ 70.01	$ 78.35	$ 62.15	$ 66.94

*Computed on a uniform basis in relation with the tables, "Industries of all Nations."

Note.—During the decade from 1870 to 1880, the aggregate debt of nations was increased from $7,875,000,000, or $920,000,000 less than the cost of new railways during the same length of time. The net earnings of the world have increased, but the relative burden of taxation has increased. The paper money of the world, a form of debt, rose from $2,960,000,000 in 1870 to $3,995,000,000 in 1880, an increase of 34 per cent. The actual amount of gold and silver coin in 1880 is set down as $4,115,000,000, 68 per cent. gold and 32 per cent. silver. The total production of silver during the decade was $798,000,000; of gold, $1,006,000,000. In the transaction of the world's commerce the mediums of exchange were as follows: 19.93 per cent. in gold; 9.61 in silver; 27.81 in bank notes; and 42.65 in checks, drafts and bills of exchange.

INCREASE OF RAILROADS* SINCE 1870; TOTAL COST AND TRAFFIC.

Countries.	Miles Open.		Increase, Miles.	Cost of New Lines, Million $	Total Cost, Million $	Passengers, Millions.		Goods, Million Tons.		Cost of Construction per mile.	Actual Receipts per mile.	Working Expenses.	Net Earnings per mile	Profit on Capital.
	1870.	1880.				1870.	1879.	1870.	1879.					
United States	44,614	86,497	41,883	2,181	4,821	110	198	150	210	56,239	6,208	3,634	2,574	4.62 %
Great Britain	15,537	17,696	2,159	910	3,489	348	629	170	215	197,227	16,327	8,154	8 173	4.15 "
France	10,851	15,375	4,524	613	2,048	110	160	52	70	133,058	13,140	6,699	6,441	4.85 "
Germany	11.457	21,275	9,818	1,187	2,150	136	196	98	130	100,657	12,052	7,361	4,711	4.65 "
Russia	7,098	14,698	7,600	705	1,323	14	38	8	35	89,729	11,112	6,714	4,389	4.82 "
Austria	5,906	12,160	6,254	642	1,241	21	42	25	45	102,019	8,562	4,666	3,896	3.86 "
Italy	3,825	5,096	1,271	107	482	24	29	6	8	93,797	6,276	4,184	2,091	2.22 "
Spain and Portugal	3,820	5,260	1,440	117	414	10	28	4	7	79,737	5,960	2,505	3,455	4.40 "
Norway and Sweden	1,783	5,167	3,384	117	170	8	17	5	7	33,398	3,016	1,951	1,065	3.38 "
Belgium and Holland	2,684	3,910	1,226	136	409	47	67	29	32	99,635	9,195	5,911	3,284	3.21 "
Switzerlaod	885	1,650	765	73	160	15	24	4	6	97,349	6,103	4,087	2,016	3.10 "
Turkey, Greece, etc	454	1,870	1,416	112	146	1	2	—	—	78,083	—	—	—	— "
Canada	4,010	6,145	2,135	122	355	4	6	4	6	57,748	3,697	2,967	729	1.26 "
Australia	1,170	4,350	3,180	214	292	1	4	1	4	67,088	4,281	2,238	2,043	3.04 "
India	4,780	8,611	3,831	287	598	22	43	5	8	69,594	6,354	3,313	3,041	4 37 "
South Ameriea	2,160	6,830	4,670	345	462	7	12	4	8	68,110	4,622	2,627	1,989	3.00 "
Africa, etc	966	5,897	4,931	58	345	1	2	1	2	58,380	—	—	—	— "
The World	122,000	222,487	100,487	7,926	18,905	879	1,497	566	793	84,846	8,222	4,685	3,537	4.18 "

Note.—The tariff returns per mile show a decrease of 4 per cent. for passengers and 22 per cent. for freight since 1870.

FOOD SUPPLY OF ALL NATIONS.

Countries.	Grain—Million Bushels.				Meat—Thousand Tons.				Production of		
	Production.	Consumption.	Surplus.	Deficit.	Production.	Consumption.	Surplus.	Deficit.	Wine, Million Gals.	Beer, Million Gals.	Spirits, Million Gals.
United States	2390	2020	370	—	3,816	2,740	1076	—	20	360	76
Great Britain	410	690	—	280	1,205	1,808	—	603	0	1110	31
France	740	910	—	170	1,002	1,228	—	226	660	192	33
Germany	950	1065	—	115	1,340	1,700	—	360	90	880	61
Russia	1620	1440	180	—	2,116	1,925	191	—	20	50	105
Austria	560	530	30	—	960	975	—	15	290	245	24
Italy	270	275	—	5	224	215	9	—	660	20	8
Spain	305	300	5	—	196	188	8	—	260	0	4
Belgium	95	120	—	25	92	140	—	48	0	170	15
Holland	50	65	—	15	144	87	57	—	0	35	16
Denmark	74	62	12	—	112	52	60	—	0	25	8
Swed., Nor.	78	80	—	2	213	146	67	—	0	35	27
Portugal	30	35	—	5	54	47	7	—	88	0	1
Tur., Greece	90	80	10	—	250	250	—	—	24	0	1
Australia	58	41	17	—	990	152	838	—	4	0	4
Canada	170	160	10	—	287	270	17	—	0	0	1
River Plate	6	6	—	—	1,310	272	1038	—	1	1	1
Algeria	20	15	5	—	110	82	28	—	9	0	0
*The World	7916	7891	22	—	14,421	12,277	2144	—	2124	3123	416

*There are, moreover, 200 million bushels of wheat grown in India of which one-tenth is exported; and besides the wine crop here given, the Cape produces 4½ million gallons, and Maderia, Canaries, etc., 5 millions.

FOOD OF ALL NATIONS.

Countries.	Grain per inhabitant.				Meat per inhabitant.				Liquor per inhabitant.			
									Wine.			
	Production, Bushels.	Consumption, Bushels.	Surplus, Bushels.	Deficit, Bushels.	Production, lbs.	Consumption, lbs.	Surplus, lbs.	Deficit, lbs.	Gallons production.	Gals., consumption.	Beer, gallons.	Spirits, gals.
United States	48.10	40.66	7.44	—	171.00	120.00	51.00	—	0.40	0.60	7.20	1.52
Great Britain	11.90	20.02	—	8.12	78.26	119.10	—	40.84	—	0.51	32.18	0.90
France	19.94	24.02	—	4.08	68.06	81.88	—	13.82	17.80	18.60	5.15	0.88
Germany	21.15	23.71	—	2.56	66.63	84.51	—	17.88	2.10	3.20	19.44	1.35
Russia	20.22	17.97	2.25	—	59.34	54.05	5.29	—	0.02	0.03	0.65	1.30
Austria	14.35	13.57	0.78	—	55.10	56.03	—	0.93	7.55	7.50	6.25	0.60
Italy	9.45	9.62	—	0.17	21.54	20.80	0.74	—	23.44	22.57	0.75	0.30
Spain	17.98	17.68	0.30	—	26.00	25.04	0.96	—	15.40	12.50	—	0.25
Belgium	17.25	22.84	—	5.59	37.60	57.10	—	19.50	—	0.72	30.70	2.80
Holland	12.50	16.25	—	3.75	80.75	48.40	32.35	—	—	0.76	8.75	2.90
Denmark	36.80	30.83	5.97	—	125.80	58.15	67.65	—	—	0.25	12.50	4.20
Swed. and Nor.	11.75	12.05	—	0.30	72.80	51.10	21.70	—	—	0.25	5.40	4.20
Portugal	7.14	8.33	—	1.19	28.82	25.20	3.62	—	20.42	16.40	—	0.20
Greece, Turkey,	7.50	6.66	0.84	—	45.00	45.00	—	—	2.00	1.80	—	0.10
Australia	21.10	14.59	6.51	—	790.00	120.00	670.00	—	0.75	1.30	? 00	1.36
Canada	40.30	38.11	2.19	—	153.00	120.00	33.00	—	—	0.11	? 00	0.30
River Platte	2.02	2.02	—	—	1183.00	200.00	983.00	—	0.33	6.20	2.00	0.25
Algeria	6.60	4.95	1.65	—	88.00	66 00	22.00	—	3.10	2.95	? 00	0.10
General average	20.23	20.19	0.04	—	77.00	68.87	8.13		6.56	6.53	8.02	1.06

*The total length of telegraphs in 1870 was 323,650; in 1880, 604,010, an increase of about 90 per cent. in the decade.

AGRICULTURAL AND PASTORAL INDUSTRIES OF THE WORLD.

Countries.	Grain Cultivation			Pastoral Farming.			
	Acres under Grain, 000's suppressed.	Acres per Adult Male.	Bushels per Acre.	Horn'd Cattle. 000's are suppressed.	Sheep. 000's are suppressed.	Horn'd Cat. pr. 100 inh's.	Sheep per 100 inhab'ts.
United States	102500	10.25	23.30	33500	38000	67	76
Grea Britain	11260	1.63	36.40	9912	32174	29	93
France	40300	5.45	18.50	11315	23674	30	64
Germany	43200	4.75	22.05	15800	25200	35	55
Russia	158000	9.95	10.25	28000	64000	35	80
Austria	37300	4.78	15.04	13133	21418	33	55
Italy	19560	3.43	13.80	3490	7150	12	25
Spain	25000	7.50	12.20	1550	14000	9	84
Belgium	2910	2.65	32.72	1242	586	22	10
Holland	1730	2.16	28.80	1466	941	37	24
Denmark	2670	6.70	27.72	1348	1720	68	88
Sweden and Norway.	4380	3.37	17.80	3205	3276	49	50
Portugal	2570	2.84	11.64	523	2417	12	55
Greece	610	2.90	15.20	58	2100	3	130
Australia	3400	6.10	17.10	7879	65914	287	2402
Canada	8500	9.90	20.00	2702	3331	63	77
River Platte	330	0.60	19.00	18850	76000	630	2580
South Africa	600	2.40	9.90	1730	11700	130	890
The World	464820	6.44	17.02	155703	393601	43	109

Note —During the period from 1870 to 1880 the agricultural wealth of the world increased 8.58 per cent.

INCREASE OF POPULATION SINCE 1870.

Countries.	Population in 1870, In thousands.	Excess Births over Deaths, In thousands.	Net Emigration, In thousands.	Net Immigration, In thousands.	Population in 1880, In thousands.	Increase In thousands.	Ratio of Increase.
United States	38558	9402	.....	2,192	50152	11594	30.13
Great Britain	31205	4265	965	.....	34505	3300	10.57
France	36554	722	110	.....	37166	612	1.67
Germany	41066	5288	987	.....	45367	4301	10.46
Russia (Europe)	73725	6565	130	.....	80160	6435	8.73
Austria	35904	2168	.....	*1103	39175	3271	9.11
Italy	26039	2053	360	.....	28332	1693	6.36
Spain	16551	386	305	.....	16632	81	0.50
Belgium	5052	527	.....	40	5619	567	11.23
Holland	3574	452	60	.....	3960	386	10.81
Sweden and Norway	6028	724	202	.....	6550	522	8.66
Denmark	1785	223	44	.....	1964	179	10.03
Portugal	3966	510	72	.....	4404	438	10.90
Turkey, etc	23648	1645	1,205	.....	24088	440	2.01
Australia	1829	450	.....	584	2863	1034	56.50
Canada	3763	307	.....	228	4298	535	14.23
South Africa	582	128	.....	297	1007	425	73.28
South America	24700	516	.....	270	25485	786	3.18
The World	375129	30331	.....	.....	411728	36599	9 76

* Annexation of Bosnia.

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON, WOOL, FLAX, JUTE, ETC.

Countries	Cotton, million lbs.		Wool, million lbs.		Flax, jute, etc., million lbs.		Total, million lbs.		Increase, mill. lbs.
	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	
United States	530	911	204	258	54	23	788	1192	404
Great Britain	1101	1404	342	401	660	766	2103	2571	468
France	210	270	292	350	360	402	862	1022	160
Germany	268	390	155	265	226	305	649	960	311
Russia	93	133	130	165	170	220	393	518	125
Austria	103	130	70	80	90	93	263	305	42
Italy	55	90	30	34	15	25	100	149	49
Spain	60	76	35	40	14	26	109	142	33
Belgium	36	48	94	105	146	148	276	301	25
Holland	11	13	6	7	50	55	67	75	8
Scandinavia	20	25	23	23	17	19	60	67	7
Switzerland, Greece, etc.	78	70	20	20	8	20	116	110	....
British Colonies, etc.	70	105	30	35	50	50	150	190	40
The World	2635	3665	1431	1783	1870	2154	5936	7602	1666

Note. - During the period from 1870 to 1880 the increase in the manufactures of the world was 18.60 per cent.

MANUFACTURES OF ALL NATIONS IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS, IN 1870 AND 1880.

Countries.	Textiles.		Hardware.		Sundries.		Total.		Increase.
	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	1870	1880	
United States	428	559	268	530	2622	3230	3318	4319	1001
Great Britain	944	1036	603	754	1576	1897	3123	3687	564
France	618	652	156	199	1362	1508	2136	2359	223
Germany	341	462	199	302	1119	1314	1659	2078	419
Russia	219	263	58	73	720	778	997	1114	117
Austria	156	175	49	73	686	754	891	1002	111
Italy	88	122	19	24	394	414	501	560	59
Spain	83	107	24	29	268	292	375	428	53
Belgium	136	146	44	63	175	204	355	413	58
Holland	24	29	10	15	146	161	180	205	25
Norway and Sweden	34	34	24	34	199	219	257	287	30
Switzerl'd, Greece, etc.	24	24	15	15	384	345	423	384	..
British Colonies	146	165	68	97	97	146	311	408	97
The World	3241	3774	1537	2208	9748	11262	14526	17244	2751

INCREASE OF COMMERCE AND BALANCE OF TRADE.

Countries	Gross Trade. 000's are suppressed. 1870.	Gross Trade. 000's are suppressed. 1880.	Increase. 000's are suppressed.	Average of Ten Years. Imports. 1870.	Average of Ten Years. Exports. 1880.	Current of Bullion. Surplus Imported since 1870.	Current of Bullion. Surplus Exported since 1870.
United States	$37,000	1,464,000	627,000	535,000,000	589,000,000	.....	241,304,000*
Great Britain	2,661,155	3,336,580	675,425	1,804,915,000	1,352,470,000	122,476,375	.....
France	1,211,385	1,615,180	403,795	758,840,000	671,370,000)	662,613,000	.....
Germany	1,313,550	1,868,160	554,610	817,320,000	773,535,000	?	?
Russia	535,150	929,215	394,065	301,630,000	272,440,000	.....	98,759,500
Austria	408,600	681,100	272,500	350,275,000	320,090,000	.....	6,811,000
Italy	360,010	467,040	107,030	248,115,000	228,655,000	.....	2,529,800
Holland	345,410	564,335	218,925	238,385,000	189,735,000	51,569,000	.....
Belgium	311,360	505,955	194,595	248,115,000)	194,600,000	221,746,700	.....
Spain and Portugal	199,465	248,115	48,650	116,760,000	107,030,000	209,195,000)	.....
Norway and Sweden	204,300	267,575	63,275	155,380,000	121,630,000	18,487,000	.....
Turkey, Greece, etc	408,600	306,485	.....	126,490,000	111,895,000	.....	.....
Australia	277,305	432,985	155,680	199,465,000	189,735,000	.....	225,970,250
Canada	100,450	170,270	9,820	87,570,000	72,975,000	.....	5,594,700
South Africa	38,920	82,710	43,790	19,460,000	24,325,000	9,121,875	.....
India	413,525	481,635	68,110	170,270,000	277,305,000	335,052,550	.....
West Indies	92,440	102,160	9,720	48,650,000)	48,650,000	2,091,650	.....
South America	413,525	437,850	24,325	204,300,000	223,790,000	.....	381,902,500
The World	10,192,150	13,961,350	3,871,315	6,430,930,000	5,769,230,000	1,632,353,150	962,881,750

* Down to 1878 the United States had exported $379,465,000, but in the years 1879 and 1880 the net importation was about $138,166,000. On the other hand great Britain no longer imports bullion, but exported $34,055,000 since 1879.

GOLD AND SILVER COINS OF THE UNITED STATES AND CHANGES IN COINAGE.

Gold Coins Authorized by Law.	Fineness.	Weight Grains.	Total am't coined to Jan. 30, 1876.
Double-eagle March 3, 1849	900	516	$765,656,740 00
Eagle, April 2, 1792	916⅔	270	
Eagle, June 28, 1834	899¼	258	56,651,120 00
Eagle, January 18, 1837	900	258	
Half-eagle, April 2, 1792	816⅔	135	
Half-eagle, June 28, 1834	899¼	129	69,344,980 00
Half-eagle, January 18, 1837	900	129	
Three-dollar piece, Feb. 21, 1853	900	77.4	1,295,568 00
Quarter-eagle, April 1, 1792	916⅔	67½	
Quarter-eagle, June 28, 1834	899¼	64⅝	26,789,970 00
Quarter-eagle, January 18, 1837	900	64½	
Dollar, March 3, 1849	900	25.8	19,343,218 00
Silver Coins.			
Dollar, April 2, 1792	892.4	416	
Dollar, January, 1837	900	412½	8,045,838 00
[Coinage Discontinued by act of February 12, 1873.]			
Trade Dollar, February 12, 1873	900	420	15,418,450 00
Half-dollar, April 2, 1792	892.4	208	
Half-dollar, January 18, 1837	900	206¼	
Half-dollar, February 21, 1853	900	192	109,123,190 50
Half-dollar, February 12, 1873	900	192.9*	
Quarter-dollar, April 2, 1792	892.4	104	
Quarter-dollar, January 18, 1837	900	103⅛	
Quarter-dollar, February 21, 1853	900	90	27,189,946 50
Quarter-dollar, February 13, 1873	900	96.45	(6¼ grams)
Twenty-cent piece, March 3, 1875	900	77.16	(5 grms)269,418 00
Dime, April 2, 1792	892.4	41.6	
Dime, January 18, 1837	900	41¼	
Dime, February 21, 1853	900	38.4	14,080,716 30
Dime, February 12, 1873	900	38.58	(2½ grams)
Half-dime, April 2, 1792	892.4	20.8	
Half-dime, January 18, 1837	900	20⅝	4,906,946 90
Half-dime, February 21, 1853	900	19.2	
[Coinage discontinued by act of February 12, 1873.]			
Three-cent piece, March 3, 1850	750	12⅜	
Three-cent piece, March 3, 1853	900	11.52	1,281,850 28

* The half-dollar authorized by the law of February 12, 1873, weighs 12½ grams, and equals half the value of the five-franc pieces of France, Belgium and Switzerland, the five-lire of Italy, five-peseta of Spain, five-drachma of Greece, and equals the florin of Austria.

COIN MINTED SINCE 1870.

Countries.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
United States	391,146,000	152,858,300	544,004,300
Great Britain	197,519,000	31,622,500	229,141,500
Australia	133,301,000	.....	133,301,000
Germany*	424,228,000	102,651,500	526,879,500
Austria	24,325,000	72,975,000	97,300,000
France	156,409,750	93,894,500	250,304,250
Russia	121,630,000	48,650,000	170,280,000
Belgium	80,272,500	46,217,500	126,490,000
Holland	58,380,000	973,000	59,353,000
Italy	7,589,400	39,596,250	47,185,650
Norway and Sweden	10,703,000	10,216,000	20,919,000
Mexico, Peru, etc	10,216,000	114,327,500	124,543,500
Japan	5,351,500	22,379,000	27,730,500
India	486,500	184,870,000	185,356,500
The World	1,621,557,650	921,231,050	2,542,788,700

PRECIOUS METALS, PRODUCTION SINCE 1870.

Countries.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
United States	383,362,000	328,874,000	712,236,000
Australia	337,631,000	.....	337,631,000
Mexico, Peru, etc	24,325,000	374,605,000	398,930,000
Russia, etc	233,520,000	72,975,000	306,495,000
The World	978,838,000	776,454,000	1,755,292,000

Production of Iron and Steel Works in United States.

Iron and Steel Products.	Census year 1880.	Census year 1870.
	Net Tons.	Net Tons.
Pig iron and castings from furnace	3,781,021	2,052,821
All products of iron rolling mills	2,353,248	1,441,823
Bessemer steel finished products	889,896	19,403
Open-hearth steel finished products	93,143	.....
Crucible steel finished products	70,319	28,069
Blister and other steel	4,956	2,285
Products of forges and blomaries	72,557	110,808
Total	7,265,140	3,655,215

THE FINANCIAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

From Washington to Hayes, Showing the Public Debt, Gross Revenues, Expenditures, Imports and Exports.

Y'r.	President.	Public Debt.	Revenu's	Expend-itures.	Exports.	Imports.
1789	Washingt'n	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1790	Washingt'n	.....	.....	.....	20,205,156	23,000,000
1791	Washingt'n	75,463,476	10,210,025	7,207,539	19,012,041	29,200,000
1792	Washingt'n	77,227,924	8,740,766	9,141,569	20,753,098	31,500,000
1793	Washingt'n	80,352,634	5,720,624	7,529,575	26,109,572	31,000,000
1794	Washingt'n	78,427,404	10,041,101	9,302,124	33,026,233	34,000,000
1795	Washingt'n	80,747,587	9,419,802	10,435,069	47,989,472	69,756,268
1796	Washingt'n	83,762,172	8,740,329	8,367,776	67,064,097	81,436,164
1797	John Adams	82,064,479	8,758,916	8,626,012	56,850,206	75,379,406
1798	Jnhn Adams	79,228,529	8,209,070	8,613,517	61,527,097	68,551,700
1799	John Adams	78,408,669	12,621,459	11,077,043	78,665,522	79,089,148
1800	John Adams	82,976,294	12,451,184	11,989,739	70,970,780	91,252,768
1801	T. Jefferson.	83,038,050	12,945,455	12,273,376	94,115,925	111,363,513
1802	T. Jefferson.	80,712,632	15,001,391	13,276,084	72,483,160	76,333,366
1803	T. Jefferson.	77,054,686	11,064,097	11,258,983	55,800,083	64,666,613
1804	T. Jefferson.	86,427,120	11,835,840	12,624,646	77,699,074	185,000,000
1805	T. Jefferson.	82,312,150	13,689,508	13,727,124	95,566,021	120,600,000
1806	T. Jefferson.	75,723,270	15,608,828	15,070,093	101,536,963	129,410,000
1807	T. Jefferson.	69,218,398	16,398,019	11,292,292	108,343,151	138,500,000
1808	T. Jefferson.	65,196,317	17,062,544	16,764,584	22,430,960	56,990,000
1809	J. Madison.	57,023,192	7,773,473	13,867,226	52,203,333	59,400,000
1810	J. Madison.	53,173,217	12,144,206	13,319,986	66,657,970	85,406,000
1811	J. Madison.	48,005,587	14,431,838	13,601,808	61,316,883	53,400,000
1812	J. Madison.	45,209,737	22,639,032	22,279,121	38,527,236	77,030,000
1813	J. Madison.	55,962,827	40,524,844	39,190,520	27,855,927	22,005,000
1814	J. Madison.	81,487,846	34,559,536	38,028,230	6,927,441	12,965,007
1815	J. Madison.	99,833,660	50,961,237	39,582,493	52,557,753	113,041,200
1816	J. Madison.	127,334,933	57,171,421	48,244,495	81,920,452	147,103,040
1817	J. Monroe..	123,491,965	33,833,592	40,877,646	87,671,560	99,250,000
1818	J. Monroe	103,466,633	21,593,936	35,104,875	93,281,133	121,750,000
1819	J. Monroe..	95,529,648	24,605,665	24,004,199	70,141,501	87,125,000
1820	J. Monroe..	91,015,566	20,881,493	21,763,024	69,661,669	74,450,000
1821	J. Monroe..	89,987,427	19,573,703	19,090,572	64,974,382	62,585,724
1822	J. Monroe..	93,546,676	20,232,427	17,676,592	72,160,281	83,241,541
1823	J. Monroe..	90,875,877	20,540,666	15,314,171	74,699,030	77,579,267
1824	J. Monroe..	90,269,777	24,381,212	31,898,538	75,986,657	89,549,007
1825	J. Q. Adams	83,788,432	26,840,858	23,585,804	99,535,388	96,340,075
1826	J. Q. Adams	81,054,059	25,260,434	24,103,398	77,595,322	84,974,477
1827	J. Q. Adams	73,987,357	22,966,363	22,656,764	82,324,727	79,484,068
1828	J. Q. Adam.	67,475,043	24,763,629	25,459,479	72,264,686	88,509,824
1829	A. Jackson.	58,421,413	24,827,627	25,044,358	72,358,671	74,492,527
1830	A. Jackson.	48,565,406	24,844,116	24,585,281	73,849,508	70,876,920
1831	A. Jackson.	39,123,191	28,526,820	30,038,446	81,310,583	103,191,124
1832	A. Jackson.	24,322,235	31,865,561	34,356,698	87,176,943	101,029,266
1833	A. Jackson.	7,001,032	33,948,426	24,257,298	90,140,443	108,118,311
1834	A. Jackson.	4,760,081	21,791,935	24,601,982	104,336,973	126,521,332
1835	A. Jackson.	351,289	35,430,087	17,573,141	121,693,577	149,895,742
1836	A. Jackson.	201,089	50,826,796	30,868,164	128,663,040	189,980,035

Y'r.	President.	Public Debt.*	Revenues.	Expendi-tures.	Exports.	Imports.
1837	VanBuren...	1,878,223	27,883,853	37,265,037	117,419,376	140,989,217
1838	VanBuren...	4,857,660	39,019,382	39,455,437	108,486,616	113,717,404
1839	VanBuren...	11,983,737	33,881,242	37,614,936	121,088,416	162,092,132
1840	VanBuren..	5,125,077	25,032,193	28,226,533	132,085,936	107,641,519
1841	W. Harrison	6,737,398	30,519,477	31,797,530	121,851,803	127,946,177
1842	J. Tyler	15,028,486	34,773,744	32,936,876	104,691,531	100,152,087
1843	J. Tyler	27,203,450	20,782,410	12,118,105	84,346,480	64,753,799
1844	J. Tyler	24,748,188	31,198,555	33,642,010	111,200,046	108,435,035
1845	J. K. Polk...	17,093,794	29,941,853	30,490,408	114,646,606	117,254,564
1846	J. K. Polk...	16,750,926	29,699,967	27,632,282	113,488,516	121,691,797
1847	J. K. Polk...	38,956,623	55,338,168	60,520,851	158,648,622	146,545,638
1848	J. K. Polk...	48,526,379	56,992,479	60,655,143	154,032,131	154,998,928
1849	Z. Taylor....	64,704,693	59,796,892	56,386,422	145,755,820	147,857,439
1850	M. Fillmore.	64,228,238	47,649,388	44,664,718	151,898,790	178,138,318
1851	M. Fillmore.	62,560,395	52,762,704	48,476,104	218,388,011	216,224,932
1852	M. Fillmore.	65,131,692	49,893,115	46,712,608	209,658,366	212,945,442
1853	F. Pierce....	67,340,628	61,500,102	54,577,061	230,976,157	267,978,647
1854	F. Pierce....	47,242,206	73,802,291	75,473,119	278,241,064	304,562,381
1855	F. Pierce....	39,969,731	65,351,374	66,164,775	275,156,846	261,468,520
1856	*F. Pierce...	31,972,537	74,056,899	73,185,644	326,964,908	314,639,942
1857	J. Buchanan.	28,699,831	68,969,212	71,071,713	362,960,608	360,890,141
1858	J. Buchanan.	44,911,881	70,372,665	81,690,521	324,644,421	282,613,150
1859	J. Buchanan.	58,496,837	81,758,557	83,756,020	356,789,461	338,768,130
1860	J. Buchanan.	64,842,287	76,841,407	76,984,848	400,122,297	362,166,254
1861	A. Lincoln..	90,580,873	83,371,640	85,283,744	243,971,277	335,650,153
1862	A. Lincoln..	524,176,412	581,679,915	570,859,141	210,688,675	205,771,729
1863	A. Lincoln..	1,119,772,138	889,379,652	895,822,360	241,997,474	252,919,920
1864	A. Lincoln..	1,815,784,370	1,392,500,716	1,295,894,656	243,977,589	329,562,895
1865	A. Lincoln..	2,680,647,869	1,805,939,345	1,907,171,366	201,558,372	248,555,652
1866	A. Johnson..	2,733,236,173	1,270,884,173	1,141,072,776	420,161,476	445,512,158
1867	A. Johnson..	2,678,126,103	1,131,060,920	1,093,070,655	438,577,312	417,833,575
1868	A. Johnson..	2,611,687,851	1,030,749,516	1,270,884,173	454,301,713	371,624,808
1869	U. S. Grant..	2,588,452,213	609,621,828	584,777,996	413,961,115	437,314,255
1870	U. S. Grant..	2,480,672,427	696,729,973	702,907,842	499,092,143	462,377,587
1871	U. S. Grant..	2,353,211,332	652,092,468	691,680,858	562,518,651	541,493,708
1872	U. S. Grant..	2,253,251,328	679,153,921	682,525,270	549,219,718	640,338,766
1873	U. S. Grant..	2,234,482,933	548,669,221	524,044,597	607,088,496	663,617,147
1874	U. S. Grant..	2,251,690,468	728,751,291	709,198,933	654,913,445	595,861,248
1875	U. S. Grant..	2,232,284,531	675,971,607	682,000,885	605,574,853	553,906,153
1876	U. S. Grant..	2,180,395,066	691,551,673	714,446,357	596,890,973	476,677,871
1877	R. B. Hayes.	2,205,301,392	630,278,167	565,299,898	658,637,457	492,097,540
1878	R. B. Hayes.	2,256,205,892	662,345,080	590,641,271	728,605,891	466,872,846
1879	R. B. Hayes.	2,245,495,072	1,066,634,827	966,393,692	735,436,882	466,073,775
1880	R. B. Hayes.	2,143,260,917	545,340,713	700,233,238	852,781,577	760,989,056
1881	J.A.Garfield	2,120,415,370	486,949,423	438,281,819	921,784,193	753,240,125
1882	C. A. Arthur					
1883						

* The figures given from 1856 to 1879, inclusive, are from the report of John Sherman, Secretary of the Treasury, to the Senate of the U. S., June 10, 1880, and can be relied upon as correct. The amounts given under head of Public Debt, represent all outstanding principal. The cash in Treasury has not been deducted from amount.

A POLITICAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

Showing the Number of Votes Cast, both Popular and Electoral, for each of the Candidates for President and Vice President, from the Foundation of the Government to the Present Time; Together with an account of the Number of States Voting at Each Election.

Year	States	Total Elect. V.	Party	Candidates for President.	States	Vote—Popular.	Electoral.	Candidates for Vice President.	Electoral V.
1789	10	73	F.	Geo. Washington.		.....	69	....	...
			F.	John Adams.....		.....	...	....	34
			F.	John Jay... ...		.....	...	... ...	9
			F.	R. H. Harrison...		.....	...	....	6
			F.	John Rutlege.....		.....	...	....	6
			A. F.	John Hancock....		.....	...	....	4
			A. F.	Geo. Clinton.....		.....	...	....	3
			F.	S. Huntingdon...		.....	...	....	2
			A. F.	John Milton.....		.....	...	....	2
			A. F.	J. Armstrong.....		.....	...	....	1
			F.	Benj. Lincoln.....		.....	...	....	1
			A. F.	Edw'd Telfair....		.....	...	....	1
				Vacancies[1].....		..	4	....	4
1792	15	135	F.	Geo. Washington.		.....	132	....	...
			F.	John Adams.....		.....	...	....	77
			R.	Geo. Clinton.....		.....	...	....	50
			R.	Thos. Jefferson....		.....	...	....	4
			R.	Aaron Burr.....		.....	...	....	1
				Vacancies[2]		.....	3	....	3
1796	16	138	F.	John Adams.....		.....	71	....	...
			R.	Thos. Jefferson...		.....	...	....	68
			F.	Thos. Pinckney..		.....	...	....	59
			R.	Aaron Burr... ..		.....	...	....	30
			R.	Saml. Adams.....		.....	...	....	15
			A. F.	Oliver Ellsworth.		.....	...	....	11
			R.	Geo. Clinton.....		.....	...	....	7
			F.	John Jay.....		.....	...	....	5
			F.	James Iredell.....		.....	...	....	3
			F.	Geo. Washington		.....	...	... ...	2
			F.	John Henry.....		.....	...	....	2
			F.	S. Johnson.....		.....	...	....	2
			F.	C. C. Pinckney...		.....	...	....	1
1800	16	138	R.	Thos. Jefferson[3]..			73	....	...
			R.	Aaron Burr.....		.....	...	....	73
			F.	John Adams.....		.....	...	....	65
			F.	C. C. Pinckney...		.....	...	....	64
			F.	John Jay.....		.....	...	....	1
1804	17	176	R.	Thos. Jefferson...	15	162	...	Geo. Clinton[4]....	162
			F.	C. C. Pinckney...	2	14	...	Rufus King.....	14
1808	17	176	R.	James Madison...	12	122	...	Geo. Clinton....	113
			F.	C. C. Pinckney...	5	47	...	Rufus King.....	47
			R.	Geo. Clinton.....		6	...	John Langdon...	9
				.....		...	...	James Madison..	3
				.....		...	...	James Monroe...	3
				Vacancy[5]... ...		...	1	....	1
1812	18	218	R.	James Madison...		128	...	E. Gerry[6]	131
			F.	Dewitt Clinton...	11	89	...	J. Ingersol.....	86
				Vacancy[7]..	7	..	1	....	1
1816	19	221	R.	James Monroe....	16	183	...	D. D. Tompkins.	183
			F.	Rufus King.	3	34	...	J. E. Howard....	22
				.....		...	...	James Ross.....	5
				.....		...	...	J. Marshall.....	4
				.....		...	...	Robt. G. Harper.	3
				Vacancies[8].....		...	4	....	4
1820	24	235	R.	James Monroe....	24	231	...	D. D. Tompkins.	218
			O.	J. Q. Adams.....		1	...	Rich. Stockton...	8
				.....		3	...	Dan'l Rodney ...	4
				.....		...	...	Robt. G. Harper.	1
				....		...	...	Richard Rush...	1
				.....		...	...	....	3
				Vacancies[9].....		...	3		
				And'w Jackson[10].	10	155,872	99	J. C. Calhoun....	182
1824	24	261	R.	J. Q. Adams.....	8	105,321	84	Nathan Sanford.	30
			C.	W. H. Crawford.	3	44,282	41	Nat'l Macon. ...	24
			R.	Henry Clay.....	3	40,587	37	Andrew Jackson.	13
			R.	....		.....	...	M. Van Buren...	9
				.....		.....	...	Henry Clay.....	2
				Vacancy[11].....		....	...	....	1

NOTE.—No returns of the popular vote for President are preserved with any accuracy prior to 1824. During the earlier elections, the majority of the States chose the Presidential Electors by their Legislatures, and not by popular vote. Even as late as 1824, six States thus voted, while the State of South Carolina continued to choose Presidential Electors by her Legislature until 1868.

NOTE.—Previous to the election of 1804 each elector voted for two candidates for President; the one receiving the highest number of votes, if a majority, was declared elected President; and the next highest, Vice President.

Year	States	Total Elect. V.	Party	Candidates for President.	States	Vote—Popular.	Electoral.	Candidates for Vice President.	Electoral V.
1828	24	261	D.	Andrew Jackson..	15	647,231	178	J. C. Calhoun....	171
			R.	J. Q. Adams.....	9	509,097	83	Richard Rush ...	83
				... .		.....	...	Wm. Smith.....	7
1832	24	288	D.	Andrew Jackson..	15	687,502	219	M. Van Buren...	189
			R.	Henry Clay.....	7	530,189	49	John Sargent.....	49
			A.M.	John Floyd.....	1	33,108	11	Henry Lee.....	11
				Wm. Wirt.. ...	1		7	Amos Ellmaker..	7
				....		.....	...	Wm. Wilkins....	30
				Vacancies[12]		.....	2	....	2
1836	26	294	D.	M. Van Buren.[13]	15	761,549	170	R. M. Johnson[13] .	147
			W.	W. H. Harrison	7	736,656	73	Fr. Granger	77
				Hugh L. White	2		26	John Tyler.....	47
				Dan'l Webster..	1		14	Wm. Smith	23
				W. P. Mangum	1		11	... .	...
1840	26	294	W.	W. H. Harrison[14]	19	1,275,017	234	John Tyler.....	234
			D.	M. Van Buren....	7	1,128,702	60	R. M. Johnson....	48
			L.	Jas. G. Birney....		7,059	...	....	...
				.....		.....	...	L. W. Tazewell..	11
				.....		.....	...	Jas. K. Polk.....	1
1844	26	275	D.	Jas. K. Polk.....	15	1,337,243	170	Geo. M. Dallas ..	170
			W.	Henry Clay.....	11	1,299,068	105	T. Frelinghuysen	105
			L.	Jas. G. Birney....		62,300	..	....	...
1848	30	290	W.	Zach. Taylor[15]. ..	15	1,360,101	163	M. Fillimore.....	163
			D.	Lewis Cass.....	15	1,220,544	127	Wm. O. Butler...	127
			F. S.	M. Van Buren....		291,263	...	Chas. F. Adams.	...
1852	31	296	D.	Franklin Pierce..	27	1,601,474	254	Wm. R. King[16]..	254
			W.	Winfield Scott....	4	1,386,578	42	Wm. A. Graham.	42
			F. D.	John P. Hale.....		156,149	...	Geo. W. Julian...	...
1856	31	296	D.	Jas. Buchanan....	19	1,838,169	174	J. C. Breckinridge	174
			R.	J. C. Fremont....	11	1,341,264	114	Wm. L. Dayton..	114
			A.	M. Fillmore.....	1	874,534	8	A. J. Donelson...	8
1860	33	203	R.	A. Lincoln.....	17	1,866,352	180	H. Hamlin.....	180
			D.	J.C. Breckenridge	11	845,763	72	Joseph Lane	72
			C. U.	John Bell.....	3	589,581	39	Edw. Everett	39
			I. D.	S. A. Douglas....	2	1,375,157	12	H. V. Johnson ...	12
1864	36	314	R.	A. Lincoln[17].....	22	2,216,067	212	Andrew Johnson.	212
			D.	G. B. McClellan..	3	1,808,725	21	G. H. Pendleton.	21
				Vacancies[18]....	11	.....	81	....	81
1868	37	317	R.	U. S. Grant.....	26	3,015,071	214	Schuyler Colfax..	214
			D.	Horatio Seymour	8	2,709,613	80	F. P. Blair, Jr....	80
				Vacancies[19]....	3	.....	23	....	23
1872	37	366	R.	U. S. Grant.....	31	3,597,071	286	Henry Wilson[20].	286
			D.&L.	Horace Greeley..	6	2,834,079		B. Gratz Brown..	47
			D.	Chas. O'Connor..		29,408		Geo. W. Julian...	5
			T.	James Black.-....		5,608		A. H. Colquitt...	5
				T. A. Hendricks.		.....	42	Jno. M. Palmer...	3
				B. Gratz Brown..		.....	18	T. E. Bramlette..	3
				C. J. Jenkins.....		.....	2	W. S. Groesbeck.	1
				David Davis.....		.....	1	W. B. Mackin....	1
				....		.....	...	N. P. Banks	1
				Vacancies[21]....		.....	17	....	14
1876	38	369	R.	R. B. Hayes[22]....	21	4,033,295	185	W. A. Wheeler..	185
			D.	S. J. Tilden.....	17	4,284,265	184	T. A. Hendricks .	184
			G.	Peter Cooper.....		81,740		....	..
			P.	G. C. Smith.....		9,522		....	...
				Scattering.....		2,636		....	...
1880	38	369	R	Jas. A. Garfield[23]	19	4,450,921	214	Chester A. Arthur	214
			D	W. S. Hancock..	19	4,417,888	155	Wm. H. English.	155
			G	James B. Weaver.		307,740		B. J. Chambers...	
			P	Neal Dow.....		10,305		H. A. Thompson.	
				Scattering.....		1,696			

NOTE.—In the column showing to which party the various candidates belonged, we have only used the initial letter: F. stands for Federalist; A. F., Anti-Federalist; R., Republican; O., Opposition; C., Coalition; A. M., Anti-Mason; D., Democratic; W., Whig; L., Liberty; F. S., Free Soil; A., American; C. U., Constitutional Union; I. D., Independent Democrat; D. & L., Democratic and Liberal; T., Temperance; G., Greenback, and P., Prohibition.

[1] Electoral votes not cast: Va., 2; Md., 2.
[2] Electoral votes not cast: Md., 2; Vt., 1.
[3] The vote for Thos. Jefferson and Aaron Burr being a tie, the election devolved upon the House of Representatives, resulting, on the 36th ballot, in the choice of Jefferson as President. Burr, receiving the next highest number of votes, was declared Vice President.
[4] George Clinton, Vice President; died April 20, 1812.
[5] Electoral vote not cast: Ky., 1.
[6] Elbridge Gerry, Vice President: died Nov. 23, 1813.
[7] Electoral vote not cast: Ohio, 1.
[8] Electoral votes not cast: Md., 3; Del., 1.
[9] Elect'l votes not cast: Miss., 1; Pa., 1; Tenn., 1.
[10] There being no choice for President, the election devolved upon the House of Representatives, a choice being made at the first ballot, Adams receiving the vote of 13 States, Jackson 7 States, and Crawford 4 States.
[11] Elect'l vote not cast for Vice Pres.: R. I., 1.
[12] Electoral vote not cast: Md., 2.
[13] No candidate having received a majority of the electoral votes for Vice President, the Senate elected R. M. Johnson, by a vote of 33 to 16 for Francis Granger.
[14] President Harrison died April 4, 1841. Vice President John Tyler became President.
[15] President Taylor died July 9, 1850. Vice President Fillmore became President.
[16] W. R. King, Vice Pres't; died April 18, 1853.
[17] President Lincoln assassinated by J. Wilkes Booth, April 15, 1865. Vice President Johnson became President.
[18] Electoral votes not cast: Nevada, 1; States in rebellion 80, viz.: Ala. 8, Ark. 5, Fla. 3, Ga. 9, La. 7, Miss. 7, N. C. 9, S. C. 6, Tenn. 10, Texas 6, Va. 10.
[19] Electoral votes not cast: Miss., 7; Texas, 6; Va., 10.
[20] Henry Wilson, Vice President; died Nov. 22, 1875.
[21] Electoral votes thrown out: 3 of Ga. for Greeley, then deceased; Ark. 6, La. 8, because of double returns from both States.
[22] Decided by an Electoral Commission appointed by Congress.
[23] Assassinated July 2, 1881; died Sept. 19, 1881.

THE PRINCIPAL BATTLES OF THE REVOLUTION.

Date.	Names and Places of Battles.	Commanders. American.	Commanders. British.	American. Engag'd	American. Loss.	British. Engag'd	British. Loss.
April 19, 1775.	LEXINGTON, Concord....	Col. Barret and Major Buttrick.....	Col. Smith and Lord Percy*.....	.....	.....50 k. 34 w.	1,700	65 k. 180 w. 28 p.
May 10, "	Ticonderoga.....	Col. Ethan Allen and Col. Eaton*.....	Capt. Delaplace.....	83	.... 5p.	48	.....48 p.
June 17, "	BUNKER HILL.....	Gens. Warren, Prescott, and Putnam...	Gens. Howe and Pigot*....	3,000	.... 450 k. & w.	4,500	..... 1,050.
Dec. 6-31, "	Quebec.....	Schuyler, Montgomery, and Arnold.....	M'Lean and Carleton*.....	900	.... 160 k. & w.	1,200	.....20 k. & w.
Dec. 9, "	Norfolk, Va.....	Col. Woodford.....	Lord Dunmore.....	.....	. .....1 w.	.....	.....62 k. & w.
M'ch 17, 1776.	Boston.....	The British Evacuate the	City and Harbor.	.....	.....	.....	....
June 28, "	Charleston (Ft. Moultrie.)	Moultrie, Lee, and Armstrong*.....	Gen. Clinton.....	400	.....10 k. 22 w.	4,000	.... 225 k. & w.
Aug. 26, "	BROOKLYN, L. I.....	Gens. Greene and Sullivan.	Gens. Howe, Clinton and Cornwallis*.....	10,000	2,000 k. w. & p.	20,000	..... 400 k.
Sept. 16, "	Harlem Plains, N.Y.....	Washington.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....18 k. 90 w.
Oct. 28, "	WHITE PLAINS, N.Y....	Washington.....	Howe*.....	1,600	.....300 k. & w.	2,000	.... 300 k. & w.
Nov. 16, "	Fort Washington, N.Y..	Col. Magaw.....	Gen. Howe*.....	3,000	.... 100 k. & w.	5,000	...1,000 k. & w.
Dec. 26, "	TRENTON, N.J.....	Washington*.....	Lord Cornwallis & Col. Rahl.....	2,400	.... .2 k. 2 froz.	1,000	...36 k. 1,000 p.
Jan. 3, 1777.	PRINCETON, N.J.....	Washington*.....	Col. Mawhood.....	3,000	....100 k. 300 p.	1,800	.....
July 7, "	Hubbardton, Vt.....	Warner, Francis and Hale.	Gen. Frazer*.....	700	.... 324 k. & w.	1,200	.... 183 k. & w.
Aug. 6, "	Fort Schuyler, N.Y.....	Gen. Herkimer and Col. Gansevoort*.....	Gen. St. Leger.....	.....	... 150 k. & w.	....	.....unknown.
Aug. 15,16 "	BENNINGTON, Vt.....	Gens. Stark and Warner*..	Cols. Baum and Beyman...	2,000	.... 200 k. & w.	1,200	200 k. 34 w. 900 p.
Sept. 11, "	Brandywine, Pa.....	Washington	Howe*.....	11,000	300 k. 600 w. 400 p.	18,000	.....500 k.
Sept. 19, "	BEMIS HEIGHTS, N.Y...	Gates*.....	Burgoyne.....	2,500	.....	3,000	.....
Oct. 4, "	Germantown, Pa.....	Washington	Howe*.....	11,000	152 k. 521 w. 400 p.	15,000	...100 k. 400 w.
Oct. 4-6, "	Forts Clinton and Montgomery	James Clinton.....	Sir H. Clinton*.....	600	.....	3,000	.....
Oct. 7, "	STILLWATER (SARATOGA)	Gates*.....	Burgoyne.....	8,000	.....	6,000	.....5,791 p.
Oct. 22, "	Fort Mercer, N.J	Col. Greene*.....	Donop.....	450	....	2,000	.....500 k.
Oct. 22, "	Red Bank, N.J.....	Col. Greene*.....	Sir William Howe.....	.....	.. ... 8 k. 28 w.	.....	.... 400 k. & w.
Nov. 16, "	Fort Mifflin, Pa.....	Major Thayer.....	Gen. Howe*.....	400	.....	mix'd	.....
June 28, 1778.	MONMOUTH, N.J.....	Washington*.....	Sir Henry Clinton...	12,000	.... 67 k. 160 w.	11,000	300 k. 300 w. 100 p.
July 2, "	Schoharie, N.Y.....	Col. Brown*.....	Indians.....	.....	..... 14 k. 10 w.	.....	.....
July 3, "	Wyoming, Pa.....	Col. Z. Butler.	John Butler*.....	400	.....Massacre.	1,000	.... 222 k. & w.
Aug. 29, "	Quaker Hill, R.I.....	Sullivan*.....	Pigot.....	5,000	30 k. 132 w. 440 m.	5,000	.....20 k. & w.
Dec. 29, "	Savannah, Ga.....	Robert Howe.....	Campbell*.....	900	.... 100 k. 453 p.	2,000	.....
Jan 9, 1779.	Sunbury, Ga.....	Lane.....	Prevost*....	200	.....	2,000	....
March 3, "	Brier Creek, Ga.....	Gen. Ashe.....	Prevost*.....	1,200	.... 150 k. 162 p.	1,800	.....100 k. & w.
June 20, "	Stony Ferry, S. C.....	Gen. Lincoln.....	Col. Maitland*.....	800	146 k. & w. 155 m.	2,000	.....63 k. 543 p.
July 16, "	Stony Point, N. Y.....	Gen. Washington*.....	Clinton.....	1,200	.....15 k. 83 w	600	.....
Aug. 13, "	Penobscot, Me.....	Lovell.....	McLean*.....	900	.....	3,000	.....150 p.
Aug. 29, "	Chemung, N.Y.....	Sullivan*.....	Brant.....	4,000	.....	1,500	.....
Oct. 9, "	Savannah, Ga.....	Lincoln.....	Prevost*...	4,500	.....	2,900	.....
May 12, 1780.	Charleston, S. C.....	Lincoln.....	Clinton*.....	3,700	.....	9,000	.....5 k. 15 w.
May 29, "	Waxhaw, S. C,.....	Col. Abr. Buford.....	Tarleton*.....	400	113 k. 150 w. 53 p.	.....	.....35 k. 50 p.
June 23, "	Springfield, N.J.....	Gen. Greene*.....	Gen. Knyphausen..... ...	3,000	..... 13 k. 58 w.	5,000	.....
July 30, "	Rocky Mount.....	Sumter.....	Turnbull*.....	600	.....	500	.....
Aug. 7, "	Hanging Rock, S. C.....	Sumter*.....	Col. Brown....	600	.... 12 k. 41 w.	500	.....
Aug. 15, "	Camden, S. C. (Sander's Creek).....	Geo. Gates.....	Cornwallis*.....	3,000	.....	2,200	.....
Aug. 18, "	Fishing Creek.....	Sumter.....	Tarleton*.....	700	.....	3,500	.....150 k.
Oct. 7, "	KING'S MOUNTAIN, S. C.	Campbell*.....	Ferguson.....	900	.....20 k.	1,100	.....
Nov. 12, "	Fishdam Ford, S. C.....	Sumter*.....	Wemyss.....	500	.....	450	.....
Nov. 20, "	Blockstock's, S. C.....	Sumter*.....	Tarleton...*.....	500	.....	400	..800 k. w. & p.
Jan. 17, 1781.	COWPENS, S. C	Gen. Morgan*	Cornwallis and Tarleton....	900	.....70 k. & w.	1,100	.....
Feb. 25, "	Battle of the Haw.....	Col. Lee*..... ...	Col. Peyle.....	.....	.....none.	.....	.....600 k. & w.
March 15, "	Guilford C. H., N. C. ...	Gen. Greene.....	Cornwallis*.....	4,400	...1,300 k. & w.	2,400	.....258 k. & w.
April 25, "	Hobkerk's Hill, Va.....	Gen. Greene.....	Rawdon*.....	1,200	..266 k. w. & m.	900	.....
May-June,"	Fort 96, N. C.....	Gen. Greene.....	Col. Cruger*..... ...	1,000	..150 k. w. & m.	550	.....52 k. 334 w.
June 1-4, "	Augusta, Ga.....	Maj. Eggleston*.....	Col. Brown.....	.....	..... 23 k. 28 w.	.....	.....52 k. 120 w.
Sept. 6, "	New London, Conn., Fort Griswold,	Col. Ledyard.....	Benedict Arnold & Col. Eyre*.....	150	16 k. 10 w. 12 m.	800	.....187 k. & w.
Sept. 8, "	EUTAW SPRINGS, S. C....	Gen. Greene.....	Lord Rawdon.....	2,000	152 k. 355 w. 40 m.	2,800	..603 k. w. & m.
Oct. 16-19, "	YORKTOWN, VA.....	Washington*.....	Cornwallis.....	16,000	.....300 k. & w.	7,500	7,500 k. w. m. & p.

The British sent 134,000 soldiers and sailors to this war. The Colonists met them with 230,000 Continentals and 50,000 militia. The British let loose Indians and Hessians. The colonies had for their allies the brave Frenchmen. The leading battles of the war particularly worthy of celebration are printed in SMALL CAPITAL LETTERS.

The * denotes the successful army; k., killed; w., wounded; p., prisoners; m., missing; s., surrendered.

CHIEF COMMANDERS OF THE ARMY.

The following is a complete list of the various officers who have commanded the army of the United States since the foundation of our service to the present time, giving the rank held by each, with the period of command: General and Commander-in-Chief, George Washington, June 15, 1775, to the close of the Revolution. From that date to September, 1789, the army consisted of eight companies of infantry and a battalion of artillery (act of September, 1785), when Brevet Brigadier-General Josiah Harmer, Lieutenant-Colonel commandant of the infantry, was assigned, and held until March, 1791. Major-General Arthur St. Clair, March, 1791, to March, 1792, when he resigned. Major-General Anthony Wayne, March, 1792, to December 15, 1796, when he died at a hut on the bank of Lake Erie, in Pennsylvania, while en route from Maumee to the East. Brigadier-General James Wilkinson, December 16, 1796, to July 2, 1798. Lieutenant-General George Washington, July 8, 1798, till his death, December 4, 1799. Brigadier-General James Wilkinson (again), June, 1800, to January, 1812, when he was promoted to Major-General. Major-General Henry Dearborn, January, 1812, to June, 1815, when he was mustered out. Major-General Jacob Brown, June, 1815, till his death, February 24, 1828. Major-General Alexander Macomb, May, 1828, until his death, in June, 1841. Major-General Winfield Scott, June 25, 1841, to November 1, 1861, being also Brevet Lieutenant-General from May, 1861. Major-General Geo. B. McClellan, November 1, 1861, to March 11, 1862. Major-General Henry W. Halleck, July 23, 1862, to March 12, 1864. Lieutenant-General U. S. Grant (appointed General July 25, 1866), March 12, 1864, to March 4, 1869. General William T. Sherman, March 8, 1869, to present date.

PRINCIPAL BATTLES OF THE WAR OF 1812.

Dates.	Names and Places of Battles.	Commanders. American.	Commanders. British.	American. Engag'd.	American. Loss.	British. Engag'd	British. Loss.
Aug. 5, 1812.	Brownstown, Canada	Van Horn	Tecumseh*	200		600	
Aug. 9, "	Maguaaga	Miller*	Tecumseh	600		900	
Aug. 15, "	Detroit,	Hull	Brock*	2,500	Surrender.	1,300	
Oct 13, "	Queenstown	Van Rensselaer	Brock*	1,200	99 k, 900 w.	2,500	
Oct. 21, "	Ogdensburg	Forsyth	———*	1,200	20 k. & w.	600	60 k. & w.
Jan. 22, 1813.	Frenchtown	Winchester	Proctor*	800	260 k. & s.	1,500	
April 27, "	York (Toronto)	Pike*	Sheaffe	1,700	300 k. w. & m.	1,500	
May 5, "	Fort Meigs	Clay*	Proctor	1,200	800 k. w. & p.	2,000	
May 27, "	Fort George, Canada	Dearborn*	Vincent		72 k. & w.		
May 27, "	Fort Mimms	Beaseley	Tecumseh.*		300 k.		
May 29, "	Sackett's Harbor	Brown*	Prevost	1,000	100 k. & w.	1,000	60 k.
June 8, "	Stoney Creek	Winder	Vincent*		100 k. w. & p.		100 k. w. & p.
Aug. 2, "	Fort Stephenson	Croghan*	Proctor	100	1 k. & 7 w.	1,300	
Oct. 5, "	Thames, Canada	Harrison*	Proctor	2,500	50 k. & w.	2,000	
Nov. 11, "	Chrysler's Field	Boyd*	Morrison	1,500	200 k. & w.	2,000	
Mar. 30, 1814.	La Coell Mill	Wilkinson	Hancock*	4,000	150 k. & w.	2,000	
April 25, "	Washington	———	Ross*	Capit	al and buildings	burnt.	
July 5, "	Chippewa	Brown*	Riall	1,900	68 k. 67 w. & p.	2,100	
July 25, "	Lundy's Lane	Brown*	Drummond	3,500		5,000	
Aug. 15, "	Fort Erie (assault)	Gaines*	Drummond	2,500	84 k.	5,000	
Aug. 24, "	Bladensburg	Winder	Ross*	3,500	Surrendered	5,000	
Sept. 11, "	Plattsburg	Macomb*	Prevost	3,000		12,000	
Sept. 12. "	North Point	Stricker	Brooke*	2,000		5,000	
Sept. 13, "	Ft. McHenry, Baltimore.	Armistead*	Cochrane	3,000		Ships.	
Sept. 15, "	Ft. Bowyer	Lawrence*	Nicholls	120	8 k. & w.	Mix'd	
Sept. 17, "	Fort Erie (sortie)	Brown*	Drummond	2,500	300 k. & w.	3,500	
Dec. 19, "	Fort Niagara	Leonard	Br. and Indians*	350	350 k. & p.	1,200	Slight.
Dec. 23, "	9 miles from N. O.	Jackson	Keane	3,000	240 k. w. & p.	2,500	
Jan. 8, 1815.	New Orleans	Jackson*	Pakenham	6,000	71 k. w. & p.	12,000	

PRINCIPAL BATTLES OF THE MEXICAN WAR.

The Americans were victorious in every battle.

Dates.	Names and Places of Battles.	Commanders. American.	Commanders. Mexican.	American. Engag'd.	American. Loss.	Mexican. Engag'd	Mexican. Loss.
May 8, 1846.	Palo Alto	Taylor	Arista	2,300	4 k. & 40 w.	6,000	
May 9, "	Resaca de la Palma	Taylor	Arista	3,000	120 k. & w.	5,000	500 k. & w.
Sept. 24, "	Monterey	Taylor	Ampudia	6,600	120 k. & 368 w.	10,000	
Dec. 25, "	Bracite	Doniphan	Ponce de Leon	500		1,200	
Feb. 23, 1847.	Buena Vista	Taylor	Santa Anna	4,700	723 k. & w.	17,000	2,000 k. & w.
Feb. 28, "	Sacramento	Doniphan	Trias	900		4,000	
Mar. 27, "	Vera Cruz	Scott	Morales	12,000	19 k. & w.	6,000	2,000 k. & w.
April 18, "	Cerro Gordo	Scott	Santa Anna	8,500	500 k. & w.	12,000	500 k. & w.
Aug. 20, "	Contreras / Churubusco	Scott	Valencia	4,000	Slight.	7,000	2,500 k. & w.
		Scott	Santa Anna	8,000	700 k. & w.	25,000	700 k. & w.
Sept. 8, "	Moline del Rey	Worth	Alvarez	3,500	787 k. & w.	14,000	230 k. & w.
Sept. 13, "	Chapultepec	Scott	Bravo	7,200	Slight.	25,000	Heavy.
Sept. 14, "	Mexico	Scott	Santa Anna	6,000			Surrender.
Oct. 9, "	Huamantha	Lane	Santa Anna	500	24 k. & w.	1,000	Unknown.

The only naval engagements of importance during the war with Mexico was the bombardment of Vera Cruz, Commodore Connor, which lasted four days, and the city compelled to surrender, and the bombardment of Monterey, by Commodore Sloat.

LENGTH AND COST OF AMERICAN WARS.

	Length.	Cost.
1. War of the Revolution	7 years—1775—1782	$ 135,193,703
2. Indian War in Ohio Ter	1790	
3. War with the Barbary States.	1803—1804	
4. Tecumseh Indian War	1811	
5. War with Great Britain	3 years—1812—1815	107,159,003
6. Algerine War	1815	
7. First Seminole War	1817	
8. Black Hawk War	1832	
9. Second Seminole War.	1845	
10. Mexican War	2 years—1846—1848	66,000,000
11. Mormon War.	1856	
12. Civil War.	4 years—1861—1865	6,500,000,000

FEDERAL PRISONERS RECEIVED AT ANDERSONVILLE, GA.

First detachment of prisoners received Feb. 15, 1864. Total number of prisoners received, 49,485. Largest number imprisoned at one date (Aug. 9, 1864), 33,006.

Total No. Deaths { In hospital ..... 8,735 / In stockade ..... 3,727—12,463

Average number of deaths per month, for the thirteen months 958

Largest number of deaths in one day (Aug. 23, 1864) 97

Number of escapes 328

PRINCIPAL DISEASES RESULTING IN DEATH.

Diarrhœa	3,952	Pneumonia	221
Scurvy	3,574	Debility	198
Dysentery	1,648	Intermit't & remit't f's	177
Unknown	1,268	Gunshot wounds	149
Anasarca	377	Pleurisy	109
Typhoid fever	229	Bronchitis	93
Rheumatism	83		
Varioloid	63		
Gangrene	63		
Catarrh	55		
Ulcers	51		
Phthisis	36		

INDIAN WARS.

1676. King Philip's War.
1704. Deerfield, Massachusetts, burned.
1708. Haverhill, Massachusetts, burned. Capture and escape of Mrs. Hannah Dustan.
1713. The Tuscaroras expelled from North Carolina.
1755. Braddock defeated by the French and Indians.
1763. Conspiracy of Pontiac.
1778. Massacre of Wyoming.
1794. Treaty with the Six Nations.
1804. Treaty with the Delawares.
1813-'14. War with the Creeks in Florida.
1817. War with the Seminoles.
1832. War with Black Hawk. Stillman's defeat on Rock River.
1835-'42. War with the Seminoles.
1837. Capture of Osceola.
1855. Defeat of the Rogue River Indians.
1856. War with the Indians in Oregon and Washington Territories.
1862. Indian war and massacres in Minnesota.
1864. (Nov. 29.) "Chivington's massacre" near Fort Lyon; over 500 Indians, men, women and children put to the sword.
1873. (April 2.) Gen. Canby and Rev. E. Thomas, peace commissioners treacherously slain by the Modocs.
1873. (Oct. 13.) Execution of the Modoc murderers of Messrs. Canby and Thomas—Captain Jack, Schonkin, Boston Charley and Black Jim.
1876. (June 25.) The command of Gen. Custer defeated by the Indians on Big Horn River, and Gen. Custer and the greater portion of his force slain.

PRINCIPAL BATTLES OF THE LATE CIVIL WAR.

DATE.	NAMES AND PLACES OF BATTLES.	COMMANDERS. FEDERAL.	COMMANDERS. CONFEDERATE.	KIL'D, WOUND'D, PRIS'RS. FEDERAL.	KIL'D, WOUND'D, PRIS'RS. CONFEDERATE.	REMARKS.
Apr. 12, 1861.	Bombardm't Ft. Sumpter	Maj. Anderson	Gen. Beauregard	no one hurt.	5 w.	
" 19	Riot Baltimore	6th Regt. Mass. Vols		3 k. 7 w.	7 k. & 8 w.	
June 20	Big Bethel, Va.	Brig. Gen. Price	Maj. Gen. MacGruder	16 k. 34 w. 6 m.	no report.	
July 5	Carthage, Mo.	Col. Sigel*	Price and Jackson	13 k. 31 w.	250 k. & w.	
" 12	Rich Mountain, W. Va.	Gen. McClellan*	Col. Pegram	11 k. 35 w.	140 k. 150 w.	150 p. and loss of camp.
" 21	Bull Run, Va.	Gen. Irwin McDowell	Gen. Beauregard*	4500 k. w. p. 28 c. 481 k. 1011 w. 700 p	1852 k. & w.	Beauregard's report. Federal "
Aug. 10	Wilson's Creek, Mo.	Gen. Lyon*	Gens. Price & McCulloch	223 k. 721 w. 292 m.	421 k. 1317 w. 3m.	Gen. Lyon killed.
Sept. 12-14	Cheat Mountain, W. Va.	Gen. J. J. Reynolds	Gen. R. E. Lee	13 k. 20 w. 60 p.	100 k. & w. 20 p.	
" 20	Lexington, Mo.	Col. Mulligan	Gen. Price*	42 k. 108 w. 1624 p.	25 k. 75 w.	
" 21	Ball's Bluff, Va.	Col. E. D. Baker	Gen. Evans*	220 k. 266 w. 500 p.	36 k. 264 w. 2 p.	Col. Baker killed.
Nov. 7	Belmont, Mo.	Gen. Grant*		84 k. 288 w. 285 m.	261 k. 427 w. 278 m.	
" 7	Pt. Royal, S. C.	Com. Dupont & Gen. W. T. Sherman*	Gen. Drayton	8 k. 23 w. 250 p.	k. & w. no report 2500 p 42 guns capd	
" 8	Piketon, Ky.	Gen. Nelson*			6 k. 24 w.	400 k. & w. 2000 p. 70 wagons with stores and equipage.
Dec. 18	Milford, Mo.	Col. J. C. Davis and Gen. Steele*			2 k. 17 w.	1300 p.
Jan. 19, 1862.	Mill Spring, Ky.	Gen. Thomas*	Gen. Zollicoffer	39 k. 207 w.	192 k. 140 p.	Gen. Zollicoffer killed, 1200 horses and mules, 100 large wagons, and 2000 musk'ts were capd.
Feb. 8	Roanoke Island, N. C.	Com. Goldsborough, Gen. Burnside*	Gen. Wise	50 k. 150 w.	30 k. 50 w. 2500 p.	
" 8	Ft. Henry, Tenn.	Surrendered to Com.	Foote, by Gen. Tilghman.			6 Forts, 65 guns, 17500 small arms captured.
" 16	Ft. Donelson, Tenn.	Com. Foote & Gen. Grant*	Gen. Buckner	446 k. 1735 w. 150 p	231 k. 1007 w. 15000 p.	Gen. Buckner captured; Gens. Floyd and Pillow escaped.
Mar. 8	Pea Ridge, Ark.	Gen. Curtis*	Gens. VanDorn & Price.	1351 k. w. & m.	1100 k. 2500 w. 1600 p.	
" 14	Newbern, N. C.	Gen. Burnside*	Gen. Branch	91 k. 466 w.	50 k. 200 w. 200 p.	
" 23	Winchester, Va.	Gen. Shields*	Gen. T. J. Jackson	100 k. 400 w.	600 k. & w. 300 p.	Gens. McCulloch, McIntosh, and Slack, killed.
Apr. 6-7	Pittsburg Land'g, Tenn.	Gen. Grant and Buell*	Gens. Johnston and Beauregard	1614 k. 7721 w. 3963 m.	1728 k. 8012 w. 959 m.	
" 10	Island No. 10.	Com. Foote & Gen. Pope*	Gen. Makad		17 k. 6300 p.	6 forts captured. Confed. report.
May 5	Williamsburg, Va.	Gen. Kearney and Hooker*	Gen. Longstreet	2073 k & w. 623 p.	700 k. 1000 w. 300 p.	
" 25	Winchester, Va.	Gen. Banks	Gens. Ewell & Johnson*			Fed. retreated.
" 29	Hanover C. H., Va.	Gen. Morrell*	Gen. Branch	53 k. 526 m.	400 k. & w. 600 p.	2000 p. and large amount of supplies captured.
" 30	Corinth, Minn.	Gen. Halleck*	Gen. Beauregard			Fed. were driven back.
" 31	Fair Oaks, Va.	Gen. McClellan	Gen. J. E. Johnston*	890 k. 3627 w 1222 p	2800 k. 3897 w.	
June 1	Fair Oaks, Va.	Gen. McClellan*	Gen. J. E. Johnston	5739 k. & w.	8000 k. & w.	
" 8	Cross Keys, Va.	Gen. Fremont	Gen. T. J. Jackson*	125 k. 500 w.	600 k. & w.	
" 9	Port Republic, Va.	Gen. Shields	Gen. T. J. Jackson*	67 k. 361 w. 574 m.	1000 k. w. & m.	
" 26	Chickahominy, Va.	Gen. McClellan*	Gen. R. E. Lee	80 k. 150 w.	1000 k. & w.	
" 27	Gaines Mills, Va.	Gen. Porter	Gen. R. E. Lee*	7500 k. w. & m.	About the same.	
July 1	Malvern Hill, Va.	Gen. McClellan*	Gen. R. E. Lee	1000 k. w. & m.	Nearly 5000.	
Aug. 5	Baton Rouge, La.	Gen. Williams*	Gen. J. C. Breckenridge	250 k. w. & m.	600 k. w. & m.	Gen. Williams killed.
" 9	Cedar Mountain, Va.	Gen. N. P. Banks*	Gen. Jackson	1500 k. w. & m.	1000 k. 1500 w.	Confeds. repulsed.
" 22	Gallatin, Tenn.	Gen. Johnson.	Gen. Morgan*	64 k. 100 w. 200 p.	110 k. & w.	Gen. Johnson captured.
" 27	Kettle Run, Va.	Gen. Hooker*	Gen. Ewell	800 k. w. & m.	800 k. & w. 1000 p.	
" 29.	Groveton, Va.	Gens. Hooker, Sigel, Kearney, Reno*	Gens. Jackson and Longstreet	6000 k. & w.	12000 k. w. & m.	
" 30	Bull Run 2nd	Gen. Pope	Gen. Lee*	8000 k 4000 w 3000 p	700 k. 3000 w.	
" 29-30	Richmond, Ky.	Gens. Mason & Craft*	Gen. Kirby Smith*	200 k. 700 w. 2000 p	250 k. 500 w.	
Sept. 1	Chantilly, Va.	Gen. Pope	Gen. Lee*	1300 k. & w.	800 k. & w.	Feds. lost Gens. Kearney and Stearns.
" 14	South Mountain, Md.	Gens. Hooker & Reno*.	Gen. Lee	443 k. 1806 w. 761 m	500 k. 2343 w. 1500 p.	Gen. Reno killed.
" 15	Harper's Ferry, 3 days' siege	Col. Miles	Gen. A. P. Hill*	8000 k. 12000 w. 11583 p	1500 k. & w.	Col. Miles killed.
" 17	Antietam, Md.	Gen. McClellan*	Gen. R. E. Lee		12500 loss	15000 loss.
" 19-20	Iuka, Miss	Gen. Rosencrans*	Gen. Price	135 k. 527 w.	263 k. 400 w. 600 p.	
Oct. 3-5	Corinth, Miss.	Gens. Ord, Hurlburt, and Veatch*	Gens. Price, Van-Dorn and Lovell	315 k. 1812 w 2321 m	1423 k. 2268 p. 5692 w.	
" 8	Perryville, Ky.	Gen. Buell*	Gen. Bragg	3200 k. w. & m.	1300 k. 3000 w. 200 p.	
Dec. 7	Prairie Grove, Ark.	Gens. Blunt and Heron*	Gens. Hindman, Marmaduke, Parsons and Frost	495 k. 600 w.	1500 k. & w.	
" 13	Fredericksburg, Va.	Gen. Burnside	Gen. R. E. Lee*	1512 k. 6000 w. 2078 p.	1800 k. & w.	
" 27-29 1863	Vicksburg	Gen. Sherman	Gen. Johnston*	1918 k. 9820 w. 756 m.	no report.	
Jany. 2	Stone River, Tenn.	Gen. Rosencrans*	Gen. Bragg	1533 k. 6000 w.	9000 k. w. 1000 p.	
" 11	Fort Hindman, Ark.	Adm. Porter & Gen. McClernand*	Gen. Churchill	1000 k. w. & m.	550 k. & w. 5000 p.	
Feby. 3	Fort Donelson, Tenn.	Col. Harding	Wheeler and Forrest	12 k. 20 w.	100 k. 400 w. 300 p.	Confed. repulsed.
May 1	Suffolk, Va.	Col. Nixon*		130 k. 718 w. 5 m.	1500 k. w. & m.	
" 1	LaGrange, Ark.	Capt. DeHuff		2000 k. w. & m.		
" 2	Fredericksburg, Va.	Gen. Sedgwick	Gen. Longstreet*	2000 k. & w.		
" 2-3	Chancellorville, Va.	Gen. Hooker*	Gen. R. E. Lee	15000 k. & w. 17000 p.	18000 k. & w. 5000 p.	
" 12	Jackson, Miss.	Gen. Grant*	Gen. Johnston	40 k. 240 w. 6 m.	400 k. & w.	
" 14	Champion Hills, Miss.	Gen. Grant*	Gen. Pemberton	426 k. 1842 w.	400 k. w. & m.	29 cannon captured.
" 16	Big Black River, Miss.	Gen. Grant*	Gen. Pemberton	29 k. 242 w.	2,600 k. w. & m.	17 cannon captured.
" 18-22	Vicksburg, Miss.	Gen. Grant, Adml's. Porter & Farragut.	Gen. Pemberton*	2500 loss.	no report.	
" 27	Port Hudson	Gen. Banks	Gen. Gardner	900 k. w. & m.	600 k. w. & m.	
June 6	Milliken's Bend, Miss.	Gen. Thomas*	Gen. McCullough	127 k. 287 w. 157 m.	200 k. 500 w.	
" 9	Beverly Ford, Va.	Gens. Buford & Gregg.	Gens. J. E. B. Stuart & F. Hugh Lee	380 k. w. & m.	750 k. w. & m.	Cavalry fight.
" 14	Winchester, Va.	Gen. Milroy	Gen. Ewell*	2000 k. w. & m.	850 k. w. & m.	
" 20	Shelbyville, Tenn.	Gen. Rosencrans*	Gen. Bragg	85 k. 468 w. 13 m.	1634 p. no rep't. k. & w.	

PRINCIPAL BATTLES OF THE LATE CIVIL WAR.—Continued.

DATES.	NAMES AND PLACES OF BATTLES.	COMMANDERS. FEDERAL.	COMMANDERS. CONFEDERATE.	KIL'D, WOUND'D, PRISON'RS. FEDERAL.	KIL'D, WOUND'D, PRISON'RS. CONFEDERATE.	REMARKS.
July 1-2-3	Gettysburg, Pa.	Gen. Meade*	Gen. R. E. Lee	.. total loss 28198.	.. total loss 37000.	
" 4	Vicksburg surrenders	Gen. Grant*	Gen. Pemberton	245 k.3688 w.303 p.	9000k. & w.30000p.	
" 4	Helena, Ark	Gen. Prentiss*	Gens. Price, Holmes and Marmaduke	....250 k. w. & m.	500 k. & w. 1000p.	
" 5	Bolton, Miss	Gen. Grant*	Gen. Joe Johnston		4000 p.	Rear guard Johnston's army.
" 8	Port Hudson, surrender.	Gen. Banks*	Gen. Gardner		5500 p.	
" 18-19	Ft. Wagner, S. C.	Gen. Gilmore	Gen. Beauregard*	....700 k. w. & m.	500 k. 331 w.	
Sept. 9	Cumberland Gap	Gen. Burnside*	Gen. Frazier		2000 p.	
" 19-20	Chickamauga	Gen. Rosencrans	Gen. Bragg*	1644 k. 9262 w. 4945 m.	..17000 k. w. & m.	
" 14	Bristow Sta., Va.	Gen. Warren*	Gen. A. P. Hill	51 k. 329 w.	1200 k. & w. 800 p.	
Dec. 4	Knoxville, Tenn.	Gen. Burnside*	Gen. Longstreet	600 k. & w.	1600 p.	
" 23-25	Chattanooga	Gen. Grant*	Gen. Bragg	4000 k. & w.	..16000 k. w. & m.	
" 25	Missionary Ridge	Gen. Hooker*	Gen. Bragg			
" 27	Ringold, Ga.	Gen. Hooker*	Gen. Hardee	....800 k. w. & m.	300 p.	
" 27-30	Locust Grove, Va.	Gen. Meade	Gen. Lee	...1000 k. w. & m.	...2500 k. w. & p.	
1864						
Mar. 25	Paducah, Ky.	Col. Hicks*	Gen. Forrest	..... 14 k. 46 w.	.....1000 k. & w.	
Apr. 8-9	Mansfield, La.	Gen. Banks*	Gen. Kirby Smith	500 k. & w. 1500 p.	2000 p.	
" 17-20	Plymouth, N. C.	Gen. Wessells	Gen. Hoke*	.....150 k. 1700 p.	.....1500 k. & w.	
May 5-7	Wilderness, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee	loss 30,000	loss 30000.	Longstreet wounded.
" "	Spotsylvania, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee	loss 10,000	loss 10000.	
" 12	Spotsylvania, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee		4000 p.	2 Confed. Gens. 30 guns
" 12-15	Ft. Darling, Va.	Gen. Butler*	Gen. Beauregard	.. 5000 k. w. & m.	.....no report.	captured.
" 13-15	Resaca, Ga.	Gen. Sherman*	Gen. Joe Johnston	....700 k. 2800 w.	.....no report.	
" 25-28	Dallas, Ga.	Gen. Sherman*	Gen. Longstreet	..... 1800 k. & w.	300 p. 4000 k. & w.	
June 1	Cold Harbor, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee*	.. 9000 k. w. & m.	.. 8000 k. w. & m.	
" 15-18	Petersburgh, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee*	loss 10,000	.....no report.	
" 22	Weldon R. R., Va.	Gen. Meade	Gen. Lee*	600 k. & w. 1250 p.	.....no report.	
" 27	Kennesaw Mt., Ga.	Gen. Sherman*	Gen. Johnston	.....1000 k. & w.	.....no report.	Johnson flanked.
July 9	Monocracy, Md.	Gen. Wallace	Gen. Early*	.....1000 k. & w.	....no report.	
" 20	Peach Tree Creek, Ga.	Gen. Sherman*	Gen. Hood	.. 1713 k. w. & m.	5000 k.& w. 1000p.	
" 22	Atlanta, Ga.	Gen. Sherman*	Gen. Hood	.....3521 k. & w.	... 10000 k. & w.	McPherson killed.
" 27-30	Petersburgh, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee*	.. 5000 k. w. & m.	.. 1200 k. w. & m.	
Aug. 5-20	Mobile Bay, Ala.	Adm. Farragut and Gen. Granger*	Gen. Page & Adm. Buchanan	..... 120 k. 88 w.	no report k. & w. 1756 p.	150 guns captured.
" 15-18	Deep Bottom, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee*	..... loss 4000	..... loss 2500.	
" 19	6 Mile Station, Va.	Gen. Warren*	Gen. Pickett	.....3000 k. & w.	..... 1500 p.	
" 25	Weldon R. R., Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee*	1000 k. & w. 3000 p.	.....1500 k. & w.	
" 31	Atlanta, Ga.	Gen. Sherman*	Gen. Hood	50 k. 50 m. 439 w.	.....5000 k. & w.	Confeds. repulsed.
Sept. 19	Winchester, Va.	Gen. Sheridan	Gen. Early	..... 3000 k. & w.	500k.4000w.2500p.	Confed. Gens. Rhodes
" 21	Fisher's Hill	Gen. Sheridan*	Gen. Early	..... 600 k. & w.	400 k. & w. 1100 p.	and Gordon killed.
" 26	Ironton, Mo.	Gen. Ewing*	Gen. Price	..... 9 k. 60 w.	.....1500 k. & w.	
29 Oct. 1	Petersburg, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee*	..... 5000 k. & w.	.....2800 k. & w.	Feds. captured 26 pieces
Oct. 19	Cedar Creek, Va.	Gen. Sheridan*	Gen. Early	4000 k.& w. 1300 p.	2800 k. & w. 1300 p.	artillery.
" 26	Nims' Creek, Mo.	Gen. Pleasanton*	Gen. Price	2000 p. 1000 k. & w.	.....900 k. 3800 p.	Gens. Marmaduke and
" 27	Hatcher's Run, Va.	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee*	8000m.400k.1500w.	.. 1600 k. w. & m.	Cabell captured.
Nov. 30	Franklin, Tenn.	Gen. Schofield*	Gen. Hood	189 k.1033 w.1104 m	1750 k.3800 w.702 p.	
Dec. 15	Nashville, Tenn.	Gen. Thomas*	Gen. Hood	.. 6500 k. w. & m.	..23000 k. w. & m.	Gen. Johnson captured
1865						and 47 guns.
Jan. 15	Ft. Fisher	Gen. Terry*		..... 110 k. 536 w.	440 k. & w. 2500 p.	Fort and 72 g. captur'd.
" 20-22	Wilmington, N. C.	Adm. Porter and Gen. Schofield*	Gen. Bragg	..... 250 k. & w.	..... 1072 p.	
Feb. 27	Waynesboro', Va.	Gen. Sheridan*	Gen. Early	..... 69 k. & w.	.....5 k. 1352 p.	All of Early's guns.
" "	Kingston, N. C.	Gen. Schofield*	Gen. Bragg	..... loss 1000.	1200 k. & w. 2400 p.	
" "	Averasboro', N. C.	Gen. Sherman	Gen. Johnson	.....74 k. 774 w.	.....327 k. 373 p.	
Mar. 19	Bentonville, N. C.	Gen. Sherman*	Gen. Johnson	..... loss 1646.	.....167 k. 1625 p.	
" 25-27	Petersburg, Va.	Gens. Grant & Meade*	Gen. Lee	1800k.1240w.990m.	2200 k. & w. 2800 p.	
April 1	Five Forks, Va.	Gens. Sheridan and Warren*	Gen. Lee	..... loss 3000.	..... 5000 p.	All of Lee's artillery captured.
" 2	Selma, Ala.	Gen. Wilson*	Gen. Forrest		.....3000 p.	Gen. Forrest & Rhoddy
" 2-3	Petersburg & Richmond	Gen. Grant	Gen. Lee	...8000 k. w. & m.	.. 9000 k. w. & m.	captured.
" 6	Farmville and Sailors Creek	Gen. Sheridan	Gen. Lee		6000 p.	Richmond captured.
" 9	Surrender of Gen. Lee's	Army at Appomattox	C. H., to Gen. Grant		..... 26115 p.	Confed. Gens. Ewell, Kershaw, Corse, and
" 11	Ft. Blakely, Mobile	Adm. Thatcher and Gen. Canby	Gen. Taylor	.....2000 k. & w.	500 k. & w. 4300 p.	Custis Lee captured.
" 12	Surrender of	Montgomery, Ala., to	Gen. Wilson		.... 2700 p. 100 g.	32 guns captured.
" 12	Salisbury, N. C.	Gen. Stoneman*	Gardner		.....1800 p.	14 guns.
" 26	Surrender of	Gen. Joe Johnston's	Army to Gen. Sherman.		.....27500 p.	
May 1	Surrender of	Gen. Morgan's	old command to Gen.	Hobson,	.....1200 p.	
" 4	Surrender of	Gen. Dick Taylor with	all forces west of Miss.	River to Gen.	Canby 10000 p.	
" 10	Surrender of	Tallahassee, Fla.	Gen. McCook, Sr.	.. ... 70 k. Adm.	.... Jones, 8000 p.	
" 10	Near Boco, Chico, Tex.	Con. Barrett	Gen. Slaughter	..... 70.		This was the last en-
" 10	Capture of	Jefferson Davis	at Irwinsville, Ga.			gagement of the Civil
" 26	Surrender of	Gen. Kirby Smith	and his army		20000 p.	War.

* In addition to the battles given above there were 421 battles, engagements, and skirmishes; a complete list can be found in the National Hand-Book of American Progress, published by E. B. Treat, 757 Broadway, N. Y.

TOTAL NUMBER OF TROOPS CALLED INTO SERVICE FROM THE NORTHERN STATES DURING THE CIVIL WAR.

DATE OF PRESIDENT'S PROCLAMATION.	NUMBER Called for	PERIOD OF SERVICE.	NUMBER OBTAINED.
April 15, 1861	75,000	3 months.	93,326
May 3, 1861	82,748	3 years.	714,231
July 22 and 25, 1861	500,000		
May and June, 1862		3 months.	15,007
July 2, 1862	300,000	3 years.	431,958
August 4, 1862	300,000	9 months.	87,588
June 15, 1863	100,000	6 months.	16,361

DATE OF PRESIDENT'S PROCLAMATION.	NUMBER Called for.	PERIOD OF SERVICE.	NUMBER OBTAINED.
Oct. 17, 1863	300,000	2 years.	374,807
Feb. 1, 1864	200,000		
March 14, 1864	200,000	3 years.	284,021
April 23, 1864	85,000	100 days	83,652
July 18, 1864	500,000	1, 2, 3 years	384,882
Dec. 19, 1864	300,000	1, 2, 3 years.	204,568
Total	2,942,748		2,690,401

This does not include the militia that were brought into service during the various invasions of Gen. Lee's army into Maryland and Pennsylvania.

COST OF THE CIVIL WAR.

The statement of the Secretary of the Treasury of the amount of money expended for all purposes necessarily growing out of the Civil War, brought down to Jan. 1, 1880, will prove an interesting and remarkable exhibit of the cost of war. The footings as reported are $6,189,929,908.00; this does not include expenditures from 1861 to 1880 of the Government for expenditures of the general Government other than for the war; the latter item was $654,641,522.

Expenses of National loan and currency	$ 51,522,730
Premiums	59,738,167
Interest on public debt	1,761,256,198
Subsistence of the army	381,417,548
Quartermaster's Department	299,481,917
Incidental expenses of Quartermaster's Department	85,342,733
Transportation of the army	330,793,385
Transportation of officers and their baggage	3,025,219
Clothing of the army	345,543,880
Purchase of horses for cavalry and artillery	126,672,423
Barracks, quarters, etc.	31,070,846
Heating and cooking stoves	448,731
Pay, mileage, general expenses, etc., of the army	97,084,729
Pay of two and three years' volunteers	1,040,102,702
Pay of three months' volunteers.	868,305
Pay, etc., of 100-days' volunteers.	14,386,778
Pay of militia and volunteers	6,126,952
Pay, etc., to officers and men in Department of the Missouri	844,150
Pay and supplies of 100-day volunteers	4,824,877
Bounty to volunteers and regulars on enlistment	38,522,046
Bounty to volunteers and their widows and legal heirs	81,760,345
Additional Bounty Act of July 28, 1866	69,998,786
Collection and payment of bounty, etc., to colored soldiers, etc.	268,158
Reimbursing States for moneys expended for payment of military service of United States	9,635,512
Defraying the expenses of minutemen and volunteers in Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky	597,178
Expenses of recruiting	1,297,966
Draft and substitute fund	9,713,873
Medical and Hospital Departm't.	45,108,770
Medical and Surgical History and Statistics	196,048
Providing for comfort of sick, wounded, and discharged soldiers	2,232,785
Freedmen's Hospital & Asylum.	123,487
Artificial limbs and appliances	509,283
Ordnance service	4,553,531
Ordnance, ordnance stores, and supplies	55,933,932
Armament of fortifications	10,218,472
National armories, arsenals, etc.	23,603,489
Purchase of arms for volunteers and regulars	76,378,935
Payment of expenses under Reconstruction acts	3,128,905
Secret service	681,587
Medals of honor	29,890
Support of National Home for disabled volunteer soldiers	8,546,184
Publication of official records of War of the Rebellion	170,098
Contingencies of the army and Adjutant-General's Departm't.	2,726,698
Preparing register of volunteers.	1,015
Army-pensions	407,429,192
Telegraph for military purposes.	2,500,085
Maintenance of gunboat fleet proper	5,244,684
Keeping, transporting, and supplying prisoners of war	7,659,411
Construction and maintenance of steam-rams	1,370,730
Signal service	143,797
Gunboats on the Western rivers.	3,239,314
Supplying, transporting, and delivering arms and munitions of war to loyal citizens in States in rebellion against the Government of the United States	1,649,596
Collecting, organizing, and drilling volunteers	29,091,666
Tool and siege trains	702,250
Completing the defenses of Washington	912,283
Commutation of rations to prisoners of war in Rebel States	320,636
National cemeteries	4,162,848
Purchase of Ford's Theater	88,000
Headstones, erection of headstones, pay of Superintendents, and removing the remains of officers to National cemeteries.	1,080,185
Capture of Jeff Davis	97,031
Support of Bureau of Refugees and Freedmen	11,454,237
Claims for Quartermaster's stores and commissary supplies	850,220
Claims of loyal citizens for supplies furnished during the Rebellion	4,170,304
Horses and other property lost in military service	4,281,724
Fortifications on the Northern frontier	683,748
Pay of the navy	74,462,304
Provisions of the navy	16,368,623
Clothing of the navy	1,594,790
Construction and repair	134,178,996
Equipment of vessels	25,174,614
Ordnance	31,422,694
Surgeons' necessaries	1,937,744
Yards and docks.	30,300,302
Fuel for the navy	11,340,232
Hemp for the navy	898,252
Steam machinery	49,297,318
Navigation	2,526,247
Naval Hospitals	499,662
Magazines	404,531
Marine Corps, pay, clothing, etc.	7,757,615
Naval Academy	1,862,132
Temporary increase of the navy.	8,123,766
Miscellaneous appropriations	2,614,044
Naval pensions	6,590,043
Bounties to seamen	2,821,530
Bounties for destruction of enemies' vessels	271,309
Indemnity for lost clothing	289,025

Expenditures in the District of Columbia from 1790 to 1876.

The total amount of money expended by the Government in the District of Columbia for all purposes from July 16, 1790, to July 30, 1876, is $92,112,395. This sum was divided as follows:

Capitol	$17,184,691
Library of Congress*	1,575,847
White House	1,640,449
Purchase of works of art	602,569
Botanic Garden	722,813
Department of State, etc.	4,989,948
Treasury Department	7,062,942
War Department	2,044,065
Navy Department	3,899,130
Post-Office Department	2,124,504
Department of Agriculture	3,174,192
Smithsonian Institution	2,305,420
Patent Office	13,197,908
Benevolent institutions	4,732,448
Penal institutions	4,418,329
Courts	78,486
Aqueduct	4,000,822
Fire Department	104,209
Canals	597,418
Bridges	1,200,568
Public grounds	1,867,537
Streets and avenues	5,975,294
Loans, reimbursements, etc.	4,027,209
Miscellaneous†	3,565,400

*First appropriation for Congressional Library, 1800.

†First appropriation for the support of Public Schools, 1866.

The Federal Army During the Civil War of 1861-65.

The following statement shows the number of men furnished by each State:

STATES.	Men furnished under Act of April 15, 1861, for 75,000 militia for 3 months.	Aggregate No. of men furnished under all calls.
Maine	771	71,745
New Hampshire.	779	34,605
Vermont	782	35,246
Massachusetts	3,736	152,048
Rhode Island	3,147	23,711
Connecticut	2,402	57,374
New York	13,906	467,047
New Jersey	3,123	79,511
Pennsylvania	20,175	366,326
Delaware	775	13,651
Maryland	.....	49,731
West Virginia	900	32,003
Dist. of Columbia	4,720	16,872
Ohio	12,357	319,659
Indiana	4,686	197,147
Illinois	4,820	258,217
Michigan	781	90,119
Wisconsin	817	96,118
Minnesota	930	25,034
Iowa	968	75,860
Missouri	10,501	108,773
Kentucky	.....	78,540
Kansas	650	20,097
Tennessee	.....	12,077
Arkansas	.....	8,289
North Carolina	.....	3,156
California	.....	15
Nevada	.....	216
Oregon	.....	617
Washington Ter.	.....	895
Nebraska	.....	1,279
Colorado	.....	1,762
Alabama	2,576	.....
Florida	1,290	.....
Louisiana	8,224	.....
Mississippi	545	.....
Texas	1,965	.....
Dakota	.....	181
New Mexico	1,510	2,395
Total	93,326	2,688,523

The Provost Marshal General's report shows that there were killed in action or died of their wounds while in service: Commissioned officers, 5,221; enlisted men, 90,868. Died from disease or accident: Commissioned officers, 2,321. Enlisted men, 182,329; a total loss in service of 280,739. Deaths, from wounds or disease contracted in service which occurred after the men left the army are not included in these figures.

Losses of the Government for Every Administration from 1789 to 1876.

The following table exhibits the losses of the Government through frauds, carelessness and from all causes, and the amount of loss on each thousand dollars, for every Administration from the beginning of the Government till the end of President Grant's Administration, as follows:

	Period of service, years.	Total Losses.	Loss on $1,000.
Washington	8	$ 250,970	$ 2.22
Adams	4	235,411	2.59
Jefferson	8	603,467	2.75
Madison	8	2,191,600	4.16
Monroe	8	3,229,787	8.58
Adams	4	885,374	4.39
Jackson	8	3,761,111	7.52
Van Buren	4	3,343,792	11.71
Harrison / Tyler	4	1,565,003	6.40
Polk / Taylor / Fillmore	4	1,732,851	4.08
Pierce	4	2,167,982	3.56
Buchanan	4	2,659,107	3.81
Lincoln	4	7,200,984	76
Johnson	4	4,619,599	57
Grant	8	2,846,192	34
Total		$39,108,605	$ 1.29

THE NAVAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

Showing Navy of the Revolution, Naval Battles of the War of 1812, Mexican War, Civil War, the Number of Vessels Captured and Destroyed for Violation of the Blockade, and Federal Vessels Captured or Destroyed by Confederate Cruisers.

THE NAVY OF THE REVOLUTION.

In December, 1775, Congress passed an Act ordering the building of thirteen vessels, three of 24 guns, five of 28, five of 32, with Ezekiel Hopkins as Commander-in-Chief, as follows:—

NAME.	No. of Guns.	HISTORY.
Hancock	32	Captured by the British in 1777.
Congress	28	Destroyed in the Hudson River to avoid capture in 1777, never having been to sea.
Montgomery	28	Do. do. do.
Delaware	24	Captured in the Delaware River 1777.
Randolph	32	Blown up in action with the British Ship Yarmouth, 64 guns, in 1778.
Washington	32	Destroyed in the Delaware by the British before getting to sea, in 1778.
Effingham	28	Do. do. do.
Raleigh	32	Captured by the British in 1778.
Virginia	28	Captured by the British in 1778, off the capes of the Delaware, before getting to sea.
Warren	32	Burned in the Penobscot River in 1779, to prevent falling into the enemy's hands.
Providence	28	Seized by the British at the capture of Charleston, S. C., in 1780.
Boston	24	Do. do. do.
Trumbull	28	Captured by the British ship Watt, in 1781.

Owing to the superiority of England on the sea, and the great difficulties with which Congress had to struggle during the war, it was impossible to give any great attention to our naval armament; but, notwithstanding this, the waters swarmed with American privateers, and many hundreds of British merchantmen were captured. Probably the most daring naval exploit during the war was fought off the coast of Scotland, September 23, 1779, between the Bon Homme Richard, of 40 guns, Paul Jones, commander, and the Serapis, a British frigate of 44 guns, Captain Pearson. The Serapis surrendered, with a loss of 150. Jones lost 300 in killed and wounded, and while his ship was sinking transferred his crew to the Serapis.

The navy was disbanded at the close of the war, the few remaining vessels were sold.

In addition to the "thirteen" vessels above named, about ten other vessels, ranging from 24 guns down to 10, were purchased and fitted out as cruisers while the others were building.

1799—The Frigate Constitution captured the French Frigate L'Insurgente.
1803—The Frigate Philadelphia captured by the Tripolitans.
1804—Commodore Decatur destroyed the Frigate Philadelphia.

PRINCIPAL NAVAL BATTLES OF THE CIVIL WAR.

1862, Feb. 6—Fort Henry, Tenn., captured by Commodore Foote.
Feb. 8—Roanoke Island, N. C., captured by Commodore Goldsborough and Gen. Burnside.
Feb. 16—Fort Donelson, Tenn., combined forces of Gen. Grant and Commodore Foote.
Mar. 8—Confederate Ram Merrimac "sinks" U. S. Frigates Cumberland and Congress, Hampton Roads, Va.
Mar. 9—Federal Monitor disables the Merrimac.
April 6—Pittsburgh Landing.
April 8—Capture of Island No. 10.
April 11—Fort Pulaski, Ga., captured by land and naval forces.
April 24—Forts Jackson, St. Phillip and New Orleans.
May 13—Natchez, Miss., captured by Admiral Farragut.
July 1—Malvern Hill.
1863, Jan. 11—Fort Hindman, Ark., Admiral Porter.
Jan. 11—U. S. Steamer Hatteras sunk by Confederate Alabama.
Jan. 17—Monitor Weehawken captures Confederate Ram Atlanta.
May 18—Vicksburg, Miss., Admiral Porter.
July 8—Port Hudson, Miss., captured.
July 8—Natchez, Miss.
1864, June 19—U. S. Steamer Kearsage "sinks the Alabama" off Cherbourg, France.
Aug. 5—Mobile, Ala., Admiral Farragut.
1865, Jan. 15—Fort Fisher, N. C., captured by Gen. Terry and Commodore Porter.

During the Civil War the Federal Navy was increased in two years to over 400 vessels, the greater part of which were used in blockading Southern ports; notwithstanding their vigilance and effectiveness, many Confederate cruisers managed to escape the blockade and destroy the Northern merchant vessels.

At the present time (1880) not one-half the vessels belonging to the navy are in active service; the greater portion of those in commission are employed in what is called squadron service. There are seven squadrons, viz., the European, the Asiatic, the North Atlantic, the South Atlantic, the North Pacific, the South Pacific and the Gulf Squadrons. These squadrons are under command of a high naval officer of the rank of commodore or rear admiral, whose ship is called the flag-ship of the squadron.

FEDERAL VESSELS CAPTURED OR DESTROYED BY CONFEDERATE "CRUISERS."

Ships	80
Brigs	46
Barks	84
Schooners	67
Steamboats	4
Gunboats	2
Cutter	1
Tug	1

NAVAL BATTLES, WAR OF 1812.

DATES.	WHERE FOUGHT.	AM. VESSELS AND COMMANDERS.	BR. VESSELS AND COMMANDERS.
1812, Aug. 13	Off Newfoundland	Frig. Essex, Porter*	Sloop Alert, Laugharne.
Aug. 19	Off Massachusetts	Frig. Constitution, Hull*	Frig. Guerriere, Dacres.
Oct. 18	Off North Carolina	Sloop Wasp, Jones*†	Frig. Frolic, Whinyates.†
Oct. 25	Near Canary Islands	Frig. United States, Decatur*	Frig. Macedonian, Carden.
Dec. 29	Off San Salvador	Frig. Constitution, Bainbridge*	Frig. Java, Lambert.
1813, Feb. 24	Off Demerara	Sloop Hornet, Lawrence*	Brig Peacock, Peake.
June 1	Massachusetts Bay	Frig. Chesapeake, Lawrence	Frig. Shannon, Broke*.
Aug. 14	British Channel	Brig. Argus, Allen	Sloop Pelican, Maples*.
Sept. 5	Off Coast of Maine	Brig. Enterprise, Burrows*	Brig Boxer, Blythe.
Sept. 10	Lake Erie	9 vessels 54 guns, Perry*	6 vessels 63 guns, Barclay.
Oct. 5	Lake Ontario	Commodore Chancey captures British Flotilla.	
1814, Mar. 28	Harbor of Valparaiso	Frig. Essex, Porter	Brig Phœbe Hillyar*. Sloop Cherub, Tucker.
Apr. 20		Sloop Frolic	Brig. Orpheus.
Apr. 29	Off Coast of Florida	Sloop Peacock, Warrington*	Brig Epervier, Wales.
June 28	Near British Channel	Sloop Wasp, Blakely*	Sloop Reindeer, Manners.
	Stonington, Ct.	British fleet attack the town; are repulsed.	
Sept. 1	Near Africa	Sloop Wasp, Blakely*	Sloop Avon, Arbuthnot.
Sept. 11	Lake Champlain	14 vessels 86 guns, McDonough*	17 vessels 95 guns, Downie.
Sept. 15	Mobile Bay	Fort Boyer, Maj. Lawrence*	4 ships, 90 guns, Col. Nichols.
Dec. 9	Lake Borgue	66 gunboats, Jones	40 barges, Lockyer*.
1815, Jan. 15	Off New Jersey	Frig. President, Decatur	Squadron, Hayes*. Ship Cyane, Falcon.
Feb. 20	Off Island of Madeira	Frig. Constitution, Stewart*	Ship Levant, Douglas.
Mar. 23	Off Brazil	Sloop Hornet, Biddle*	Brig Penguin, Dickenson.

* Indicates the victorious party.
† Afterwards captured, with her prize, by the Poictiers, a British 74.

VESSELS CAPTURED OR DESTROYED FOR VIOLATION OF THE BLOCKADE, OR IN BATTLE, FROM MAY, 1861, TO MAY, 1865.

Schooners	735
Sloops	155
Steamers	262
Barks	27
Brigs	30
Ships	13
Ironclads and Rams	16
Brigantines	2
Gunboats	3
Propellers	4
Pilot Boats	2
Boats	8
Yachts	2
Tugs	3
Barkatine	1
Pungy	1
Miscellaneous	86

The British vessels captured during the war of 1812 were 1,750, the American 1,683.

The only naval engagements of importance during the war with Mexico was the bombardment of Vera Cruz, Commodore Connor, which lasted four days, and the city compelled to surrender, and the bombardment of Monterey by Commodore Sloat, July 6, 1846, and the capture of Monterey on the California coast, by Commodore Sloat.

Oct. 25, 1846—Tobacco captured and Mexican vessels in port destroyed.

AMOUNT OF PAPER MONEY AND FRACTIONAL CURRENCY OUTSTANDING IN THE UNITED STATES AT THE CLOSE OF EACH FISCAL YEAR FROM 1860 TO 1881 INCLUSIVE.

Prepared at the Treasury Department, July 1, 1881.

Year ending June 30.	State Bank Circulation.	National Bank Circulation.	Legal Tender Notes.	Demand Notes.	One and two Year Notes of 1863. (See Note 1)	Compound Interest Notes. (See Note 1)	Fractional Currency, Paper.	Fractional Currency, Silver. (See Note	Total amount in Currency.	Amo't per Capita	Value of Paper Dol. as compared with Coin, July 1 of each yr.	Value of Currency in Gold.
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
1860.....	207,102,477	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	207,102,477	6.58	.....	.....
1861.....	202,005,767	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	202,005 767	6.30	.....	.....
1862.....	183,792,079	.....	96,620,000	53,040,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	333,452,079	10.19	0 86.6	288,769,500
1863.....	238,677,318	.....	207,767,114	3,351,020	89,879,475	.....	20,192,456	.....	049,867,283	19.44	0 76.6	497.798,339
1864.....	179,157,717	31,235,270	431,178,671	780,999	153,471,450	15,000 000	22,894,877	.....	833,718,984	24,48	0 38.7	322,549,247
1865.....	142,919,638	146,137,860	432,687,966	472,603	42,338,710	193,756,080	25,005,829	.....	983,318,686	28.29	0 70.4	692,256,355
1866.....	19,996,163	281,479,908	400,619,206	272,162	3,454,230	159,012,140	27,070,877	.....	891,904,686	25.14	0 66.0	588,657,093
1867.....	4,484,112	298,625,379	371,783,597	208,432	1,123,630	122,394,480	28,307,524	.....	826,927,154	22.83	0 71.7	592,906,769
1868.....	3,163,771	299,762,855	356,000,000	141,723	555,492	28,161,810	32,626,952	.....	720,412,603	19.48	0 70.1	505,009,235
1869.....	2,558,874	299,929 624	356,000,000	123,739	347,772	2,871,410	32,114,637	.....	693,946,057	18.37	0 73.5	510,050,352
1870.....	2,222,793	299,766,984	356,000,000	06,256	248,272	2,152.910	39,878,684	.....	700,375,899	18.16	0 85.6	599,521,770
1871.....	1,968,058	318,261,241	356,000,000	96,505	198,572	768,500	40,582,874	.....	717,875,751	18.14	0 89.0	638,909,418
1872.....	1,700,935	337,664,795	357,500,020	88,296	167,522	593,520	40,855,835	.....	738.570,904	18.18	0 87.5	646,249 541
1873.....	1,294,470	347,267,661	356,000,000	79,997	142,105	479,400	44,799,365	.....	750,062,369	17.98	0 86.4	648,053 887
1874.....	1,009,021	351,951,032	382,000,000	76,732	127,625	415,210	45,881,296	.....	781,490,916	18.23	0 91.0	711,156,734
1875.....	786,844	354,408,008	375,771,580	79,107	113.375	367,390	42,129,424	.....	773,646,729	17.55	0 87.2	674,619,947
1876.....	658,938	332,998,336	369,772,284	66,917	104,705	328,760	34,446,595	10.926,938	749,303,474	16.53	0 89.5	671,773,938
1877.....	521,611	317,048,872	359,764,332	63,962	95,725	296,630	20,403,137	33,185,273	731,379,643	15.68	0 94.7	694,375,247
1878.....	426,504	324,514,284	346,681,016	62,297	90,485	274,920	16,547,769	39,155,633	729,215,508	15.19	0 99.4	725,083.925
1879.....	352,452	329,691,697	346,681,016	61,470	86,185	259,090	15,842,606	39,360,529	734,801,995	14.87	1 00.0	734,801,995
1880.....	299,790	344,505,427	346,681,016	60,975	82,485	242.590	7,214,954	24,061,449	735 522,956	14.46	1 00.0	735,522,956
1881.....	242,997	355,042,075	346,681,016	60,535	79,985	230,250	7,105,953	19,974,897	780,584,809	.....	1 00.0	780,584,809

NOTE 1.—The one and two-year notes of 1863, and the compound interest notes, though having a legal-tender quality for their face-values, were in fact interest-bearing securities, payable at certain times, as stated on the notes. They entered into circulation but for a few days, if at all, and, since maturity. those presented have been converted into other interest-bearing honds, or paid for in cash, interest included.

NOTE 2.—The amount of fractional silver in circulation in 1860, 1861, and 1862, cannot be stated. The amounts stated for 1876, 1877, 1878, and 1879, are the amounts coined and issued since January 1876. To these amounts should be added the amount of silver previously coined which has come into circulation.

PENSION STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

List of Pension Agencies, Names of Pension Agents, number of Pensioners on the roll of each Agency, June 30, 1881, and the amount disbursed for pensions during the year, together with a comparative statement of the number of pensioners on the roll at the beginning and close of the year ending June 30, 1881.

From the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Pensions for 1881.

Locat'n of Age'y.	Name of Pension Agent.	Army.		Navy.		War of 1812.		Disbursements on account of pensions during the year.				Whole number of pensioners on the roll.	
		Invali's	Wid's.	Invalids	Wid's	Survivors.	Wi'ws of, &c.	For regular pensions.	For Arrears of Pensions.	Salaries and expenses of pension ag'ts.	Total disbursements.	June 30, 1881.	June 30, 1880.
Boston, Mass....	D. W. Gooch..	10.156	7,086	500	429	716	2,074	$3,604,673.68	$29,647.03	$14,883.22	$3,649,203.93	20,961	19,886
Chicago, Ill.	Ada C. Sweet..	13,997	5,914	83	52	405	1,030	4,637,481.68	61,602.88	15,752.71	4,714,837.27	21 481	19,370
Columbus, Ohio..	A. T. Wikoff...	14,070	7,515	50	74	720	2,104	4,352,166.21	63,381,22	18,144.96	4,433,692.39	24,533	23.368
Concord, N. H..	E. L. Whitford	10,482	6,884	149	115	1,161	3,164	3,107,494.23	40,178.64	16,911 59	3,404.584.46	21,955	21,031
Des Moines, Ia...	Jacob Rich.....	9,676	2,747	.....	.....	218	547	3,220,988.82	33,449.55	11,721.16	3,266,159,53	13,188	11,337
Detroit, Mich....	Samuel Post....	7,521	2,761	24	22	326	721	2,024,640.30	30,285.46	10,533.54	2,065,459.30	11,375	10 818
Indianapolis, Ind.	Fred. Knefler ..	10,740	4,478	.....	... ...	219	816	3,002,455.28	54,442.78	12,587.94	3 069,486.00	16,253	15,145
Knoxville, Tenn..	D. T. Boynton..	4,699	4,561	77	92	1,921	6,396	2,667,932.69	50,158.74	13 144.60	2,731,236.03	17,746	17,192
Louisville, Ky....	R. M. Kelly....	2,594	2,780	9	16	388	1,011	1,007,906.60	24,131,22	7,255.17	1,039,292.99	6,768	6,701
Milwaukee, Wis..	E. Ferguson ...	8,201	3,113	28	23	215	416	2,866,721.05	25,985.68	9,859.99	2,842,566.72	11,966	10,652
New York, N.Y..	Chas. R. Coster	7 384	5,826	473	404	548	1,337	2,609,984.41	44,398.79	17,431.86	2,671,815.06	15,969	15,308
Philadelphia, Pa..	H. G. Sickel ...	10,417	5,569	315	321	238	1,000	3,172.870.08	37,010.34	15,281.60	3,225.162.02	17,860	16,584
Pittsburgh, Pa...	W. A. Herron .	9,175	4,109	49	51	235	795	2,731,350.38	31,219.82	12,630.23	2,775,200.43	14,414	12,919
St. Louis, Mo....	N. A. Adams ..	9,432	2,998	34	21	309	834	2,853,226.37	45 858.85	11,636.11	2,910.721.33	13,628	12,472
S. Francisco, Cal.	Henry Cox	1,301	252	51	30	55	105	361,320.39	5,272.96	4,901.88	371,585.23	1,794	1,595
Syracuse, N. Y...	T. S. Poole.....	10,583	5,946	.. ....	.....	869	2,311	3,364,960.30	43,938.60	15,439.83	3,424,338.73	19,709	18,468
Washington, D.C.	Theo. Gaines ..	12,597	4,144	345	358	358	1,368	3,896 975.05	57,723.17	16,498.87	3,971,197.09	19,170	17,956
Total number of pensioners on roll		153,015	76,683	2,187	2,008	8,898	26,029	49,723,147.52	678,685 73	224,705.26	50,626,538.51	268 830	250,802
Increase during the year.....		19,813	.....	127	138	....	1,279	$12,676,961.63	.....	$521.84	.....	18,028	.....
Decrease during the year. ..		.....	2.089	.....	.....	1,240	.....	.....	$19,291,485,10	.....	6,614,001.63	.....	.....

Amount paid for pensions during the past 21 years.....$506,345,044.21. Average annual pension to each pensioner,.....$107.01.

During the year 28,740 new names were added to the roll, 1,344 of which had formerly been on the roll, but dropped for various causes. During same period the names of 10,712 pensioners were dropped. The salaries of pension agents under the existing laws are $4,000 *per annum*, and an extra allowance or perquisite of 15 cents for each pension voucher above 4,000 issued in any year. Out of this, however, pension agents must pay all clerk hire, office rent, postage, and contingent expenses of their offices.

RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE IN STATES AND TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATE.	RESIDENCE IN THE STATE.	RESIDENCE IN THE COUNTY.	RESIDENCE IN THE VOTING PRECINCT.	STATE.	RESIDENCE IN THE STATE.	RESIDENCE IN THE COUNTY.	RESIDENCE IN THE VOTING PRECINCT.	STATE.	RESIDENCE IN THE STATE.	RESIDENCE IN THE COUNTY.	RESIDENCE IN THE VOTING PRECINCT.
Alabama	1 yr.	3 mos.	30 ds.	Kentucky	2 yrs.	1 yr.	60 ds.	New York	1 yr.	4 mos.	30 ds.
Arizona	1 yr.	10 ds.	----	Louisiana	1 yr.	----	10 ds.	North Carolina	1 yr.	30 ds.	----
Arkansas	1 yr.	6 mos.	30 ds.	Maryland	1 yr.	6 mos.	6 mos.	Ohio	1 yr.	30 ds.	20 ds.
California	1 yr.	90 ds.	30 ds.	Maine	3 mos.	----	----	Oregon	6 mos.	90 ds.	----
Colorado	6 mos.	----	----	Massachusetts	1 yr.	6 mos.	----	Rhode Island	1 yr.	----	6 mos.
Connecticut	1 yr.	----	6 mos.	Michigan	3 mos.	----	10 ds.	South Carolina	1 yr.	60 ds.	----
Dakota	90 ds.	----	----	Minnesota	4 mos.	----	10 ds.	Texas	1 yr.	6 mos.	----
Delaware	1 yr.	1 mo.	----	Mississippi	6 mos.	1 mo.	----	Tennessee	1 yr.	6 mos.	----
Florida	1 yr.	6 mos.	----	Missouri	1 yr.	60 ds.	----	Utah	6 mos.	----	----
Georgia	1 yr.	6 mos.	----	Nebraska	6 mos.	40 ds.	10 ds.	Vermont	1 yr.	----	3 mos.
Idaho	4 mos.	30 ds.	---	Nevada	6 mos.	30 ds.	----	Virginia	1 yr.	6 mos.	----
Illinois	1 yr.	90 ds.	30 ds.	New Hampshire	----	----	6 mos.	West Virginia	1 yr.	30 ds.	----
Indiana	6 mos.	60 ds.	30 ds.	New Jersey	1 yr.	5 mos.	----	Wisconsin	1 yr.	----	----
Iowa	6 mos.	60 ds.	10 ds.	New Mexico	6 mos.	3 mos.	30 ds.	Wyoming	90 ds.	----	----
Kansas	6 mos.	----	30 ds.		----	----	----		----	----	----

NOTE.—In the abbreviations above, yr. stands for year, mos. for months, ds. for days. Registration is required in all the States except Delaware, Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Texas, Tennessee and Vermont. Rhode Island, North Carolina, Delaware, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Hampshire require a property qualification. In Georgia, delinquent taxpayers are disfranchised. Delinquency for two years disfranchises in Pennsylvania. The payment of a poll-tax is required in Tennessee. Paupers or Indians not taxed are not allowed to vote in Delaware, Massachusetts, Maine, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia or Wisconsin. Women can vote in the Territories of Utah and Wyoming. Chinamen are expressly denied the right of suffrage in California, and do not vote in any State. Women are allowed, by statute law, to vote in school elections in some of the States. Foreigners who have gained a residence, even if they have not been naturalized, can vote at State and local elections in Indiana, Iowa, Michigan and Minnesota. In Congressional and Presidential elections, Federal Supervisors of Elections are authorized by Congress, in certain emergencies, and under the general direction of the U. S. Courts, to prevent intimidation at the polls and fraud in counting the ballots. In Kentucky alone the voting is not by ballot, but *vive voce*. Where no time of residence is specified in the foregoing table, the Constitution of the State or Laws of the Territory are silent, or the time for the county and the town are the same.

NEW TESTAMENT CANON.

	ACTS.	PHIL.	1 THES.	2 THES.	HEBREWS.	JAMES.	1 PETER.	2 PETER.	1 JOHN.	2 JOHN.	3 JOHN.	JUDE.	REV.
Irenæus, 180	in	in	in	in	om	om	d	om	in	d	om	om	in
Muratorian Canon, 180	in	in	in	in	om	om	om	om	om	in	---	in	in
Clement, 210	in	in	in	in	d	in	in	in	in	d	in	d	in
Tertullian, 220	in	in	in	in	om	om	om	om	in	om	om	om	in
Peshito, Syria	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om	in	om	om	om	om
Old Latin Version, African	in	in	in	in	om	om	in	om	in	in	in	in	in
Origen, 250	in	in	in	in	in	d	in	d	in	d	d	d	in
Eusebius, 340	in	in	in	in	----	d	in	d	in	d	d	d	om
Cyril, 356	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om
Laodicea, 365	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om
Athanasius, 365	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Amphilochius, 365	in	in	in	in	d	in	in	d	in	d	d	d	d
Gregory, 389	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om
St. Chrysostom, 407	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om	in	om	om	om	om
Theodore of Mopsuestia	in	in	in	in	in	om	in	om	in	om	om	om	om
Theodoret of Cyrus	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om	in	om	om	om	om
Sinai MS	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Alexandrian MS	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Clermont MS., Latin	in	om	om	om	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Apostolic Canons	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	d	in	om
Council of Constantinople, 629	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Johannes Damascenus, 750	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Nicephorus, 810	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om
Photius	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om
Œcumenius	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om
Theophylach	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om
Gregory the Great	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
John of Salisbury, 1165	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Ebed Jesu, 1318	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	om	in	om	om	om	om
Council of Trent, 1546	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Council of Jerusalem	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
Erasmus, 1500	in	in	in	in	om	in	in	in	in	om	om	in	om
Luther	in	in	in	in	d	d	in	in	in	in	in	d	d
Calvin	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	----	----	----	----
Westminster Assembly, 1647	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in

NOTE.—In this table, in denotes inserted; om, omitted; d, doubtful. The Council of Trent settled the Canon for the Roman Catholic Church; the Council of Constantinople for the Greek Church; the Westminster Assembly for the Protestants. They all agree as to what writings constitute the New Testament.

THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

PROVINCES.	AREA.	POPULATION.	POP. PER SQ. MILE.	PROVINCES.	AREA.	POPULATION.	POP. PER SQ. MILE.	PROVINCES.	AREA.	POP. PER SQ. MILE.	POPULATION.
Chihli	58,949	27,990,871	475	Chehkiang	39,150	26,256,784	671	Kwangtung	79,456	19,174,030	241
Shantung	65,104	28,958,764	444	Fukien	53,480	14,777,410	276	Kwangsi	78,250	7,313,895	93
Shansi	55,268	14,004,210	253	Hupeh	70,450	27,370,098	389	Kweichow	64,554	5,288,219	82
Honan	65,104	23,037,171	354	Hunan	84,000	18,652,507	223	Yunnan	107,969	5,561,320	51
Kiangsu	44,500	37,843,501	850	Shensi	67,400	10,207,256	152				
Anhwei	48,461	34,168,059	705	Kansu	86,608	15,193,125	175				
Kiangsi	72,176	23,046,999	320	Szechuen	166,800	21,435,678	128	TOTALS	1,307,826	360,279,079	277

THE PRESIDENTS AND THEIR CABINETS FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE GOVERNMENT.

PRESIDENT.	Inaugurated.	VICE-PRESIDENT	Inaugurated.	SECRETARY OF STATE.	Appointed.	SECRETARY OF TREASURY.	Appointed.
Geo. Washington	1789	John Adams	1789	Thomas Jefferson	1789	Alex. Hamilton	1789
Geo. Washington	1793	John Adams	1793	Edm. Randolph	1794	Oliver Wolcott	1795
				Tim. Pickering	1795		
John Adams	1797	Thomas Jefferson	1797	Tim. Pickering	1797	Oliver Wolcott	1797
				John Marshall	1800	S. Dexter	1800
Thomas Jefferson	1801	Aaron Burr	1801	James Madison	1801	S. Dexter	1801
Thomas Jefferson	1805	George Clinton	1805			Albert Gallatin	1802
James Madison	1809	George Clinton	1809	Robert Smith	1809	Albert Gallatin	1809
James Madison	1813	Elbridge Gerry	1813	James Monroe	1811	G. W. Campbell	1814
						Alex. J. Dallas	1814
James Monroe	1817	Dan. D. Tompkins	1817	John Q. Adams	1817	W. H. Crawford	1817
James Monroe	1821						
John Q. Adams	1825	John C. Calhoun	1825	Henry Clay	1825	Richard Rush	1825
Andrew Jackson	1829	John C. Calhoun	1829	Martin Van Buren	1829	Samuel D. Ingham	1829
Andrew Jackson	1833	Martin Van Buren	1833	Ed. Livingston	1831	Louis McLane	1831
				Louis McLane	1833	William J. Duane	1833
				John Forsyth	1834	Roger B. Taney	1833
						Levi Woodbury	1834
Martin Van Buren	1837	Richard M. Johnson	1837	John Forsyth	1837	Levi Woodbury	1837
Wm. H. Harrison	1841	John Tyler	1841	Daniel Webster	1841	Thomas Ewing	1841
John Tyler	1841			Hugh S. Legare	1843	Walter Forward	1841
				Abel P. Upshur	1843	John C. Spencer	1843
				John Nelson	1844	Gerge M. Bibb	1844
				John C. Calhoun	1844		
James Knox Polk	1845	George M. Dallas	1845	James Buchanan	1845	Robt. J. Walker	1845
Zachary Taylor	1849	Millard Fillmore	1849	John M. Clayton	1849	W. M. Meredith	1849
Millard Fillmore	1850			Daniel Webster	1850	Thomas Corwin	1850
				Edward Everett	1852		
Franklin Pierce	1853	William R. King	1853	William L. Marcy	1853	James Guthrie	1853
James Buchanan	1857	J. C. Breckenridge	1857	Lewis Cass	1857	Howell Cobb	1857
				Jeremiah S. Black	1860	Philip F. Thomas	1860
						John A. Dix	1861
Abraham Lincoln	1861	Hannibal Hamlin	1861	Wm. H. Seward	1861	Salmon P. Chase	1861
						W. P. Fessenden	1864
						Hugh McCulloch	1865
Abraham Lincoln	1865	Andrew Johnson	1865				
Andrew Johnson	1865						
Ulysses S. Grant	1869	Schuyler Colfax	1869	E. B. Washburne	1869	Alex. T. Stewart	1869
Ulysses S. Grant	1873	Henry Wilson	1873	Hamilton Fish	1869	Geo. S. Boutwell	1869
						W. A. Richardson	1873
						Benj. H. Bristow	1874
						L. M. Morrill	1876
Rutherford B. Hayes	1877	Wm. A. Wheeler	1877	Wm. H. Evarts	1877	John Sherman	1877
James A. Garfield	1881	Chester A. Arthur	1881	James G. Blaine	1881	William Windom	1881
Chester A. Arthur	1881			F. T. Frelinghuysen	1881	Charles J. Folger	1881

THE PRESIDENTS AND THEIR CABINETS FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE GOVERNMENT. Concluded.

Secretary of War.	Appointed.	Secretary of Navy.	Appointed.	Sec'y of Interior.	Appointed.	Postmaster General.	Appointed.	Attorney General.	Appointed.
Henry Knox	1789	Henry Knox	1789	Interior Department created 1849.	....	Samuel Osgood	1789	E. Randolph	1789
T. Pickering	1794	T. Pickering	1794		....	T. Pickering	1791	Wm. Bradford	1794
J. McHenry	1796	J. McHenry	1796		....	Jos. Habersham	1795	Charles Lee	1795
J. McHenry	1797	George Cabot	1798		....	Jos. Habersham	1797	Charles Lee	1797
S. Dexter	1800	B. Stoddert	1798		....		....		....
John Marshall	1800		....		....		....		....
Rog. Griswold	1801		....		....		....		....
H. Dearborn	1801	B. Stoddert	1801		....	Jos. Habersham	1801	Th. Parsons	1801
	....	Robert Smith	1802		....	Gideon Granger	1802	Levi Lincoln	1801
	....	J. Crowinshield	1805		....		....	Robert Smith	1805
	....		....		....		....	J. Breckenridge	1805
	....		....		....		....	C. A. Rodney	1807
William Eustis	1809	Paul Hamilton	1809		....	Gideon Granger	1809	C. A. Rodney	1809
J. Armstrong	1813	William Jones	1813		....	R. J. Meigs	1814	W. Pinckney	1811
James Monroe	1814	B.W. Crowinshield	1814		....		....	Richard Rush	1814
W. H. Crawford	1815		....		....		....		....
Isaac Shelby	1817	B.W. Crowinshield	1817		....	R. J. Meigs	1817	William Wirt	1817
J. C. Calhoun	1817	S. Thompson	1818		....	John McLean	1823		....
	....	John Rodgers	1823		....		....		....
	....	S. L. Southard	1823		....		....		....
James Barbour	1825	S. L. Southard	1825		....	John M Lean	1825	William Wirt	1825
P. B. Porter	1828		....		....		....		....
John H. Eaton	1829	John Branch	1829		....	W. T. Barry*	1829	J. M. Berrien	1829
Lewis Cass	1831	L. Woodbury	1831		....	Amos Kendall	1835	R. B. Taney	1831
	....	M. Dickerson	1834		....		....	B. F. Butler	1834
	....		....		....		....		....
	....		....		....		....		....
J. R. Poinsett	1837	M. Dickerson	1837		....	Amos Kendall	1837	B. F. Butler	1837
	....	J. K. Paulding	1838		....	John M. Niles	1840	Felix Grundy	1838
	....		....		....		....	H. D. Gilpi	1840
John Bell	1841	Geo. E. Badger	1841		....	Francis Granger	1841	J. J. Crittenden	1841
John C. Spencer	1841	Abel P. Upshur	1841		....	C. A. Wickliffe	1841	H. S. Legare	1841
James M. Porter	1843	David Henshaw	1843		....		....	John Nelson	1844
Wm. Wilkins	1844	T. W. Gilmer	1844		....		....		....
	....	John Y. Mason	1844		....		....		....
W. L. Marcy	1845	Geo. Bancroft	1845		....	Cave Johnson	1845	J. Y. Mason	1845
	....	John Y. Mason	1846		....		....	N. Clifford	1846
	....		....		....		....	Isaac Toucey	1848
G. W. Crawford	1849	Wm. B. Preston	1849	Thomas Ewing	1849	Jacob Collamer	1849	R. Johnson	1849
Winfield Scott	1850	Wm. A. Graham	1850	A. H. H. Stuart	1850	Nathan K. Hall	1850	J. J. Crittenden	1850
Chas. M. Conrad	1850	J. P. Kennedy	1852		....	S. D. Hubbard	1852		....
Jefferson Davis	1853	James C. Dobbin	1853	R. McClelland	1853	James Campbell	1853	Caleb Cushing	1853
John B. Floyd	1857	Isaac Toucey	1857	J. Thompson	1857	Aaron V. Brown	1857	J. S. Black	1857
Joseph Holt	1860		....		....	Joseph Holt	1859	E. M. Stanton	1860
	....		....		....	Horatio King	1861		....
S. Cameron	1861	Gideon Welles	1861	Caleb B. Smith	1861	Montg. Blair	1861	Edw. Bates	1861
E. M. Stanton	1861		....	John P. Usher	1863	Wm. Dennison	1864	James Speed	1864
	....		....	James Harlan	1865		....		....
	....		....		....		....		....
Ulysses S. Grant	1867		....	O. H. Browning	1866	A. W. Randall	1866	H. F. Stanherry	1866
Lorenzo Thomas	1868		....		....		....	O. H. Browning	1868
J. M. Schofield	1868		....		....		....	W. M. Evarts	1868
J. M. Schofield	1869	Adolph E. Borie	1869	J. D. Cox	1869	J. A. J. Cresswell	1869	E. R. Hoar	1869
J. A. Rawlins	1869	G. W. Robeson	1869	C. Delano	1870	Jas. W. Marshall	1874	A. T. Ackerman	1870
W. W. Belknap	1869		....	Zach. Chandler	1875	Marshall Jewell	1874	E. S. Pierrepont	1875
Jas. D. Cameron	1876		....		....	Jas. N. Tyner	1876	G. H. Williams	1876
			....		....		....	A. Taft	1876
G. W. McCrary	1877	R. W. Thompson	1877	Carl Schurz	1877	D. M. Keys	1877	H. Devens	1877
	....	Nathan Goff, Jr	1881		....		....		....
Robt. T. Lincoln	1881	Wm. H. Hunt	1881	Sam'l J. Kirkwood	1881	Thomas L. James	1881	Wayne VacVeagh	1881
	....		....		....	Timothy O. Howe	1881	E. H. Brewster	1881

* Before the accession of Andrew Jackson to the Presidency the Postmaster General was looked upon as the head of a bureau, but President Jackson invited Mr. Barry to a seat in his cabinet meetings, since which time the Postmaster General has been considered a regular member of the Cabinet.

DISTANCES AND STANDARDS OF TIME OF THE PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE WORLD.

Air-Line Distances from Washington to various parts of the World.

	MILES.
Alexandria, Egypt	5,275
Amsterdam, Holland	3,555
Athens, Greece	5,005
Auckland, N. Z.	8,290
Algiers, Algeria	3,425
Berlin, Prussia	3,847
Berne, Switzerland	3,730
Brussels, Belgium	3,515
Batavia, Java	11,118
Bombay, Hindostan	8,546
Buenos Ayres, A. C.	5,013
Bremen, Prussia	3,500
Constantinople, Turkey	4,880
Copenhagen, Denmark	3,895
Calcutta, Hindostan	9,348
Canton, China	9,000
Cairo, Egypt	5,848
Cape Town, Cape Colony	6,684
Cape of Good Hope	7,380
Carracas, Venezuela	1,805
Charlotte Town, P. E. I.	820
Dublin, Ireland	3,076
Delhi, Hindostan	8,368
Edinburgh, Scotland	3,275
Fredericton, N. B.	670
Gibraltar, Spain	3,150
Glasgow, Scotland	3,215
Halifax, N. S.	780
Hamburg, Germany	3,570
Havana, Cuba	1,139
Honolulu, S. I.	4,513
Jerusalem, Palestine	5,495
Jamestown, St. Helena	7,150
Lima, Peru	3,515
Lisbon, Portugal	3,190
Liverpool, England	3,228
London, "	3,315
City of Mexico, Mexico	1,867
Montevideo, Uraguay	5,003
Montreal, Canada	471
Madrid, Spain	3,485
Moscow, Russia	4,466
Manilla, Phil. Islands	9,360
Mecca, Arabia	6,598
Muscat, "	7,600
Monrovia, Liberia	3,645
Morocco, Morocco	3,305
Mourzouk, Fezzan	5,525
Mozambique, Moz	7,348
Ottawa, Canada	462
Panama, New Granada	1,825
Parana, A. C.	4,733
Port au Prince, Hayti	1,425
Paris, France	3,485
Pekin, China	8,783
Quebec, Canada	601
Quito, Ecuador	2,531
Rio Janeiro, Brazil	4,280
Rome, Italy	4,365
St. Petersburg, Russia	4,296
Stockholm, Sweden	4 055
Shanghai, China	8,600
Singapore, Malay	11,300
St. John's, N. F.	1,340
San Domingo, S. D.	4,300
San Juan, Nicaraugua	1,740
San Salvador, C. A.	1,650
Santiago, Chili	4,970
Spanish Town, Jamaica	1,446
Sydney, C. B. I.	975
Sydney, Australia	8,963
St. Paul de Loanda	5,578
Timbuctoo, Soudan	3,395
Tripoli, Tripoli	4,425
Tunis, Tunis	4,240
Toronto, Canada	343
Venice, Italy	3,835
Vienna, Austria	4,115
Valparaiso, Chili	4,934
Vera Cruz, Mexico	1,680
Warsaw, Poland	4,010
Yeddo, Japan	7,630
Zanzibar, Zanzibar	7,078

Distances by Water from New York to various parts of the World.

	MILES.
Alexandria, Egypt	5,075
Aspinwall	2,338
Amsterdam, Holland	3,510
Azores	2,240
Balize, Balize	1,790
Batavia, Java	13,066
Belfast, Ireland	2,895
Bermudas, West Indies	660
Bombay, India	11,574
Bordeaux, France	3,310
Botany Bay, Australia	13,294
Bremen	3,575
Bristol	3,010
Brussels, Belgium	3,420
Buenos Ayres, S. A	6,120
Callao	3,500
Cape of Good Hope, Africa	6,838
Cape Horn, S. A.	7,000
Chagres, New Granada	2,328
Cherbourg	3,125
Colombia River	15,965
Constantinople, Turkey	5,140
Copenhagen, Denmark	3,640
Calcutta, India	12,500
Canton, China	14,090
Galway	3,000
Gibraltar, Spain	3,300
Glasgow, Scotland	2,926
Guayaquil, Equador	2,800
Halifax, Nova Scotia	555
Havre, France	3,325
Hamburg, Germany	3,775
Havana, Cuba	1,280
Hong Kong	6,488
Kingston, Jamaica	1,635
Lima, Peru	11,310
Lisbon, Portugal	3,175
London, England	3 375
Liverpool, "	3,084
Madras, British India	11 850
Malta	4,325
Manilla, Philipine Islands	10,750
Melbourne, Australia	11,165
Monrovia, Liberia	3 850
Mozambique, Moz	6,900
Nagasaki	9,800
Naples, Italy	4,330
Panama, New Granada	2,066
Pekin, China	15,325
Pernambuco, Brazil	4,780
Quebec, Canada	1,400
Rio Janeiro, Brazil	5,920
St. John, New Foundland	800
St. Petersburg, Russia	4,420
San Diego	4,500
Sandwich Islands, S. I.	7,157
San Francisco, Cal.	18,850
San Juan, Nicaraugua	2,270
Shanghai, China	14,500
Smyrna, Asia Minor	5,000
Southampton	3,156
Stockholm, Sweden	4,050
Tahiti, S. I.	7,865
Trieste, Austria	5,130
Valparaiso, Chili	4,800
Vera Cruz, Mexico	2,200
Victoria, Australia	12,825
Vienna, Austria	4,100
Yokohama, Japan	7,520

Distances from London, England, to various parts of the World.

	MILES.
Amsterdam, Holland	290
Baltimore, Md	3,700
Barbadoes, W. I.	3,780
Batavia, Java	11,812
Bermudas, W. I.	3,195
Bordeaux, France	758
Boston, Mass	3,125
Botany Bay, Australia	8,040
Bombay, India	11,320
Buenos Ayres, S. A.	6,685
Calcutta, India	12,160
Canton, China	14,650
Cape Horn, S. A.	7,150
Cape of Good Hope, Africa	6,580
Chagres, New Granada	4,650
Charleston, S. C.	4,315
Columbia River	16,130
Constantinople, Turkey	3,260
Copenhagen, Denmark	710
Dublin, Ireland	590
Gibraltar, Spain	1,380
Halifax, N. S.	2,750
Hamburg, Germaoy	420
Havana, Cuba	4,610
Havre, France	275
Kingston, Jamaica	4,560
Lima, Peru	10,730
Lisbon, Portugal	1,100
Liverpool, England	650
Madras, British India	11,580
Malta	4,212
Manilla, Philipine Islands	12,425
Monrovia, Africa	3,475
Naples, Italy	2,420
New Orleans, La	5,115
New York, N. Y.	3,375
Panama, New Granada	4,700
Pekin, China	15,100
Pernambuco, Brazil	4,450
Philadelphia, Pa	3,540
Quebec, Canada	3,010
Rio Janeiro, Brazil	5,400
Sandwich Islands, S. I.	15,100
San Francisco, Cal.	8,200
St. Petersburg, Russia	1,375
Singapore, China	12,475
Smyrna, Asia Minor	3,120
Stockholm, Swedea	1,120
Tahiti, S. I.	11,800
Trieste, Austria	3,220
Valparaiso, Chili	9,475
Vera Cruz, Mexico	5,140
Victoria, Australia	12,575
Washington, D. C.	3,775

Standards of Time in the Principal Cities of the World, compared with 12:00 noon at Washington, D. C.

Albany, N. Y., 12 13 p. m
Amsterdam, Holl'd, 5 28 p. m
Angra, India, 3 19 p. m
Atchison, Kan., 10 47 a. m
Athens, Greece, 6 43 p. m
Atlanta, Ga., 11 40 a. m
Augusta, Ga., 11 40 a. m
Augusta, Me., 12 29 p. m
Baltimore, Md., 12 02 p. m
Bangor, Me., 12 33 p. m
Bath, Me., 12 29 p. m
Berlin, Germany, 6 02 p. m
Bombay, India, 10 00 p. m
Boston, Mass., 12 24 p. m
Brussels, Belgium, 5 25 p. m
Buffalo, N. Y., 11 52 a. m
Cape Town, Africa, 6 22 p. m
Cairo, Egypt, 7 13 p. m.
Calcutta, India, 11 01 p. m
Canton, China, 12 41 a. m
Cambridge, Mass., 12 29 p. m
Charleston, S. C., 11 43 a. m
Charlottet'n, P.E.I. 12 58 p.m
Chicago, Ill., 11 17 a. m
Cincinnati., O., 11 30 a. m
Cleveland. O., 11 41 a. m
Constantinople, 7 04 p. m
Columbia, S. C., 11 44 a. m
Columbus, O., 11 36 a. m.
Danville, Va., 11 50 a. m
Denver, Col., 10 08 a. m
Des Moines, Ia., 10 53 a. m
Detroit, Mich., 11 36 a. m.
Dubuque, Ia., 11 05 a. m
Dublin, Ireland, 4 43 p. m
Edinburg, Scotland, 4 55 p. m
Frankfort, Ky., 11 29 a. m
Galveston, Tex., 10 49 a. m
Halifax, N. S., 12 54 p. m.
Hamilton, Ont., 11 49 a. m
Hannibal, Mo., 11 07 a. m.
Hartford, Ct., 12 17 p. m
Houston, Tex., 10 44 a. m.
Indianapolis., Ind., 11 24 a.m
Jacksonville, Ill., 11 07 a. m
Jefferson City, Mo., 10 59 a.m
Kalama, Wash. T., 8 58 a m
Kansas City, Mo., 10 49 a. m
Key West, Fla., 11 41 a. m
Knoxville, Tenn., 11 32 a. m
Laramie, Wy. T., 10 12 a. m
Leavenworth, Kan., 10 49 a.m
Lisbon, Portugal, 4 31 p. m
Lincoln, Neb., 10 41 a. m
Little Rock, Ark., 10 59 a. m
London, England, 5 07 p. m
Louisville, Ky., 11 26 a. m
Macon, Ga., 11 37 a. m
Melbourne, Aus., 2 48 a. m
Memphis, Tenn., 11 08 a. m
Meridian, Miss., 11 14 a.m
Milwaukee, Wis., 11 16 a. m
Minneapolis, Minn., 10 55 a.m
Mobile, Ala., 11 16 a. m
Montgomery, Ala., 11 23 a.m
Monoton, N. B., 12 48 p. m
Montreal, Que., 12 14 p. m
Moscow, Russia, 7 38 p. m
Nashville, Tenn., 11 21 a. m
New Haven, Ct., 12 16 p. m
New London, Ct., 12 20 p. m
New Orleans, La., 11 08 a. m
New York, N. Y., 12 12 p. m
Omaha, Neb., 10 44 a. m
Ottawa, Ont., 12 05 p. m
Paris, France, 5 17 p. m
Paducah, Ky., 11 16 a. m
Pensacola, Fla., 11 19 a. m
Philadelphia, Pa., 12 07 p. m
Pittsburgh, Pa., 11 48 a. m
Port Hope, Ont., 11 54 a. m
Port Huron, Mich., 11 34 a.m
Portland, Me., 12 27 p. m
Portland, Oregon, 8 56 a. m
Portsmouth, Va., 12 03 p. m
Providence, R. I., 12 22 p. m
Quebec, Que., 12 23 p. m
Quincy, Ill., 11 07 a. m
Raleigh, N. C., 11 50 a. m.
Richmond, Va., 11 58 a. m
Rio Janeiro, Brazil, 2 15 p. m
Rome, Italy, 5 58 p. m
Rome, Ga., 11 32 a. m
St. John, N. B., 12 44 p. m
St. John, N. F., 1 37 p. m.
St. Joseph, Mo., 10 50 a. m
St. Louis, Mo., 11 07 a. m
St. Paul, Minn., 10 56 a. m
Salt L. City, U. T. 9 40 a. m
Santa Fe, N. Mex., 10 04 a.m
San Francisco, Cal., 8 58 a. m
Sault St. Marie, M., 11 31 a.m
Savannah, Ga., 11 44 a. m
Selma, Ala., 11 20 a. m
Shreveport, La., 10 57 a. m
Sioux City., Ia., 10 42 a. m
Terre Haute, Ind., 11 18 a. m
Topeka, Kan., 10 45 a. m
Toronto, Ont., 11 51 a. m.
Trenton, N. J., 12 09 p. m
Vicksburg, Miss., 11 05 a. m
Vienna, Austria, 6 14 p. m
Vincennes, Ind., 11 17 a. m
Virginia City, M. T., 9 40 a.m
Wilmington, Del., 12 06 p. m
Wilmington, N. C., 11 58 a.m
Winona, Minn., 11 01 a. m
Wheeling, W. Va., 11 45 a. m
Yanktoa, D. T., 10 38 a. m

HISTORY OF THE SEVERAL STATES AND TERRITORIES.

Showing Population of 1870 and 1880; When Admitted to the Union, Public Debt, Area, Where and By Whom First Settled, National Electoral Vote, Salaries, Term of Office of Governor and Members of Legislature, Number of Senators and Representatives comprising the Legislature, Miles of R. R. in operation January 1, 1880.

Admitted to the Union.	States and Territories.	Capitals.	Electoral Vote.	Area in Square Miles. ‖	Population, 1880 ‖	Population, 1870. ***	Public Debt.		First Settled at	By Whom.	When.	State Government. Governor | Legislature. Salary.	Term, yrs	No. Sen	Term, yrs	No. As'bly	Term, yrs	Limit of Session in days.	Miles of R. R. in operation, 1880.
1820	Maine	Augusta	6	33,040	648,936	626,915	$5,848,900		Bristol	French.	1625	$1,500	2	31	1	151	1	none‡	1,009
*1788	N. Hampshire	Concord	4	9,305	346,991	318,300	3,573,550		Little Harbor	English	1623	1,000	2	24	2	280	2	none‡	1,019
1791	Vermont	Montpelier	4	9,565	332,286	330,551	59,116	1	Fort Dummer	English	1764	1,000	2	30	2	232	2	none‡	873
*1788	Massachusetts	Boston	14	8,315	1,783,085	1,457,351	33,020,464		Plymouth	English	1620	5,000	1	40	1	240	1	none†	1,870
*1790	Rhode Island	Prov. & N'port	4	1,250	202,538	217,353	2 534,500	2	Providence	English	1636	4,000	1	37	1	72	1	none†	210
*1788	Connecticut	Hartford	6	4,990	622,700	537,434	4,967,600		Windsor	English	1635	2,000	2	21	2	245	1	none‡	922
*1788	New York	Albany	36	49,170	5,082,871	4,382,759	9,111,054	3	New York	Dutch	1614	10,000	3	32	2	128	1	none†	6 008
*1787	New Jersey	Trenton	9	7,815	1,131,116	906,096	2,096,000	4	Bergen	Dutch	1620	5,000	3	21	3	60	1	none†	1,663
*1787	Pennsylvania	Harrisburg	30	45,215	4,282,891	3,521,951	22,190,088		Philadelphia	English	1682	10,000	3	50	4	201	2	none†	6 068
*1787	Delaware	Dover	3	2,050	146,608	125,015	974,000	5	Cape Henlopen	Swedes.	1627	2,000	4	9	4	21	2	none‡	280
*1788	Maryland	Annapolis	8	12,210	934,933	780,894	6,037,088		St. Mary	English	1634	4,500	4	26	4	84	2	90‡	§966
*1788	Virginia	Richmond	12	42,450	1,512,565	1,225,163	See Note	6	Jamestown	English	1607	5,000	4	40	4	99	2	90‡	1,672
*1789	N. Carolina	Raleigh	11	52,250	1,399,750	1,071,361	26,850.227	7	Chowan River	English	1650	3,000	4	50	2	120	2	60‡	1.446
*1788	S. Carolina	Columbia	9	30,570	995,577	653 410	6.146,595		Ashley River	English	1670	4,500	2	34	4	124	2	none†	1,425
*1788	Georgia	Atlanta	12	59,475	1,542,180	1,184,109	10,844,500		Savannah	English	1733	4,000	2	44	4	175	2	4 ‡	2,460
1845	Florida	Tallahassee	4	58,680	269,493	187,748	1,150,000	8	St. Augustine	Span'ds	1565	3,500	4	-	4	---	2	60‡	519
1819	Alabama	Montgomery	10	52,250	1,262,505	906,992	8,596,000		Mobile	French.	1711	2,000	2	33	4	100	2	50‡	1 832
1817	Mississippi	Jackson	9	46,810	1,131,597	827.922	752,150		Natchez	French	1716	4,000	4	37	4	120	2	none‡	1,140
1812	Louisiana	New Orleans	8	48,720	939,946	726.915	12,136,166		Iberville	French.	1699	4,000	4	36	4	99	4	90‡	544
1845	Texas	Austin	13	265,780	1,591,749	808 579	3.581 663		San Antonio	Span'ds	1692	4,000	2	31	4	93	2	60‡	2,591
1836	Arkansas	Little Rock	7	53,850	802,525	481,471	4,736,500		Arkansas Post	French.	1685	3,500	2	31	4	93	2	60‡	868
1796	Tennessee	Nashville	12	42,050	1,542,359	1,258,520	20,057,150		Fort London	English	1757	4,000	2	25	2	75	2	75‡	1,701
1792	Kentucky	Frankfort	13	40,400	1,648,690	1,321,011	1,850,008		Boonesboro	English	1775	5,000	4	38	4	100	2	60‡	1,595
1863	West Virginia	Wheeling	6	24,780	618,417	442,014	See Note	9	Wheeling	English	1774	2,700	4	24	4	65	2	45‡	694
1803	Ohio	Columbus	23	41,060	3,198,062	2,665,260	6,477,840		Marietta	English	1788	4,000	2	36	2	120	2	none‡	5,521
1837	Michigan	Lansing	13	58,915	1,636,937	1,184,059	890,000	10	Detroit	French	1650	1,000	2	32	2	100	2	no e‡	3,673
1816	Indiana	Indianapolis	15	36,350	1,978,301	1,680,637	1,093,395	11	Vincennes	French	1730	6,000	4	50	4	100	2	60‡	4.336
1818	Illinois	Springfield	22	56,650	3,077,871	2.536,891	282,700	12	Kaskaskia	French	1682	6.000	4	51	4	153	2	none‡	7.578
1848	Wisconsin	Madison	11	56,040	1,315.497	1,054.670	2,252,057		Green Bay	French.	1669	5,000	2	33	2	100	1	none†	2.896
1858	Minnesota	St. Paul	7	83,365	780,773	438.706	430,000	13	Red River	Amer.	1812	3,000	2	41	2	106	1	60‡	3.008
1846	Iowa	Des Moines	13	56,025	1,624.615	1,194.020	545,435		Burlington	English	1830	3.000	2	50	4	107	2	none‡	4.779
1821	Missouri	Jefferson City	16	69,415	2,168,380	1,721 265	17,008,000	14	St. Genevieve	French.	1764	5.000	4	34	4	103	2	70‡	3.740
1861	Kansas	Topeka	9	82,080	996,096	364,399	1,181,975	15	----------	Amer.	----	3,000	2	40	4	129	2	50‡	3.103
1867	Nebraska	Lincoln	5	76,855	452,402	122,015	499,267		----------	Amer.	----	2,500	2	30	2	84	2	40‡	1,634
1876	Colorado	Denver	3	103,925	194,327	39,864	125,000		----------	Amer.	----	3,000	2	26	4	49	2	40‡	1,208
1864	Nevada	Carson City	3	110,700	62,266	42,491	436,400		Genoa	Amer.	1850	6,000	4	25	4	50	2	60‡	720
1850	California	Sacramento	8	158,360	864,694	560,247	3,200,000	16	San Diego	Span'ds	1769	6,000	4	40	4	80	2	60‡	2,209
1859	Oregon	Salem	3	96,030	174,768	99 923	588,843		Astoria	Amer.	1811	1,500	4	30	4	60	2	40‡	295
Organized.																			
1863	Arizona	Prescott	--	113,020	40,440	9.626	----------		----------	Span'ds	1500	2,600	4	-	2	---	2	40‡	183
1861	Dakota	Yankton	--	149,100	135,177	14,181	----------		----------	Amer.	1859	2,600	4	13	2	26	2	40‡	400
1863	Idaho	Boise City	--	84,800	32,610	14 990	----------		----------	Amer.	1842	2,600	4	13	2	26	2	40‡	220
1864	Montana	Helena	--	146,080	39,159	20,595	----------		----------	Amer.	1852	2,600	4	13	2	26	2	40‡	10
1850	New Mexico	Santa Fe	--	122,580	119,565	90,565	----------		Santa Fe	Span'ds	1537	2,600	4	13	2	26	2	40‡	118
1850	Utah	Salt Lake City	--	84,970	143,963	86 786	----------		Salt Lake City	Amer.	1847	2,600	4	13	2	27	2	40†	593
1853	Washington	Olympia	--	69,180	75,116	22,626	----------		Astoria	Amer.	1811	2 600	4	9	2	30	2	40‡	212
1868	Wyoming	Cheyenne	--	97,890	20,789	9 752	----------		----------	Amer.	1867	2,600	4	13	2	26	2	40‡	472
1790–91	Dis. Col.**	----------	--	70	177,624	131.700	21,688,323		----------	English	----	------	--	-	-	---	-	------	s'eMd
1834	Indian Ter**	Tahlaquah	--	64,690	---------	8,785	----------		----------	--------	----	------	---	--	-	---	-	------	275
1868	Alaska **	Sitka		577,390	---- ----	661	----------		----------	--------	----	------	---	--	-	---	-	------	------

*Original thirteen States, and date of ratification of the Constitution. ‖Official. †The Legislature meets annually. ‡The Legislature meets biennially. §Includes the District of Columbia. **No Territorial Government. ***This does not include 383,712 Indians, estimated.

1. Cash on hand, $79,203; surplus, $20,087. 2. Sinking Fund, $596,190; net debt, $1,938,310. 3. Canal Sinking Fund, $1,451,628; net debt, $7,659,426. 4. Sinking Fund, $1,379,797; net debt, $716,503. 5. The State holds railroad mortgages, etc., in excess of this debt, $165,799. 6. Owing to refunding and chaotic condition of finances, the exact indebtedness cannot be given. About $30,000,000 worth of bonds are issued, of which We t Virginia is charged with $15,239,370, as her portion of the State debt at the time of separation. 7. An act of the legislature providing for a compromise of the State debt was passed March 4, 1879. 8. $435,000 worth of bonds are held by the State Educational Fund. 9. No State debt except her portion of the old Virginia debt, which has never been adjusted. 10. The Sinking Fund is now more than sufficient to extinguish the entire debt. 11. In addition to this, the State is indebted to the School Fund $3,904,783, for which negotiable bonds have been issued. 12. Was paid January 1, 1881. 13. The whole amount is held by the Educational Trust Funds. 14. $2,900,000 of this belong to the State's permanent School Fund. 15. Of this the permanent School Fund holds $607,925, the Sinking Fund holds $94,275, the State University, $9,800, the Normal School, $1,600. 16. Against this the State owns $2,700,000 in School Funds, and has $1,000,000 on hand, leaving a surplus of $500,000.

THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1880,

AS ISSUED BY THE U. S. GOVERNMENT.

The following table presents the final official figures of the population of the United States at the Tenth Census, with a column showing, for comparative purposes, the population of 1870.

The figures for Indian Territory and Alaska are omitted, as their inhabitants are not considered citizens. All Indians not subject to taxation are also omitted, in conformity with the census law.

The column headed "Colored" comprises only persons of African descent.

States and Territories.	Total population.		1880.								
	1880.	1870.	Male.	Female.	Native.	Foreign.	White.	Colored.	Chinese.	Japanese.	Indians.
The United States	50,155,783	38,558,371	25,518,820	24,636,963	43,475,840	6,679,943	43,402,970	6,580,793	105,465	148	66,407
The States.	49,371,340	38,155,505	25,075,619	24,295,721	42,871,556	6,499,784	42,714,479	6,518,372	93,782	141	44,566
Alabama	1,262,505	996,992	622,629	639,876	1,252,771	9,734	662,185	600,103	4	....	213
Arkansas	802,525	484,472	416,279	386,246	792,175	10,350	591,531	210,666	133	....	195
California	864,694	560,247	518,176	346,518	571,820	292,874	767,181	6,018	75,132	86	16,277
Colorado	194,327	39,864	129,131	65,196	154,537	39,790	191,126	2,435	612	....	154
Connecticut	622,700	537,454	305,782	316,918	492,708	129,992	610,769	11,547	123	6	255
Delaware	146,608	125,015	74,108	72,500	137,140	9,468	120,160	26,442	1	....	5
Florida	269,493	187,748	136,444	133,049	259,584	9,909	142,605	126,690	18	....	180
Georgia	1,542,180	1,184,109	762,981	779,199	1,531,616	10,564	816,906	725,133	17	....	124
Illinois	3,077,871	2,539,891	1,586,523	1,491,348	2,494,295	583,576	3,031,151	46,368	209	3	140
Indiana	1,978,301	1,680,637	1,010,361	967,940	1,834,123	144,178	1,938,798	39,228	29	....	246
Iowa	1,624,615	1,194,020	848,136	776,479	1,362,965	261,650	1,614,600	9,516	33	....	466
Kansas	995,096	364,399	536,667	459,429	886,010	110,086	952,155	43,107	19	....	815
Kentucky	1,648,690	1,321,011	832,590	816,100	1,589,173	59,517	1,377,179	271,451	10	....	50
Louisiana	939,946	726,915	468,754	471,192	885,800	54,146	454,954	483,655	489	....	848
Maine	648,936	626,915	324,058	324,878	590,053	58,883	646,852	1,451	8	....	625
Maryland	934,943	780,894	462,187	472,756	852,137	82,806	724,693	210,230	5	...	15
Massachusetts	1,783,085	1,457,351	858,440	924,645	1,339,594	443,491	1,763,782	18,697	229	8	369
Michigan	1,636,937	1,184,059	862,355	774,582	1,248,429	388,508	1,614,560	15,100	27	1	7,249
Minnesota	780,733	439,706	419,149	361,624	513,097	267,676	776,884	1,564	24	1	2,300
Mississippi	1,131,597	827,922	567,177	564,420	1,122,388	9,209	479,398	650,291	51	....	1,857
Missouri	2,168,380	1,721,295	1,127,187	1,041,193	1,956,802	211,578	2,022,826	145,350	91	....	113
Nebraska	452,402	122,993	249,241	203,161	354,988	97,414	449,764	2,385	18	....	235
Nevada	62,266	42,491	42,019	20,247	30,613	25,653	53,556	488	5,416	3	2,803
New Hampshire	346,991	318,300	170,526	176,465	300,697	46,294	346,229	685	14	....	63
New Jersey	1,131,116	906,096	559,922	571,194	909,416	221,700	1,092,017	38,853	170	2	74
New York	5,082,871	4,382,759	2,505,322	2,577,540	3,871,492	1,211,379	5,016,022	65,104	909	17	819
North Carolina	1,399,750	1,071,361	687,908	711,842	1,396,008	3,742	867,242	531,277	.....	1	1,230
Ohio	3,198,062	2,665,260	1,613,936	1,584,126	2,803,119	394,943	3,117,920	79,900	109	3	130
Oregon	174,768	90,923	103,381	71,387	144,265	30,503	163 075	487	9,510	2	1,694
Pennsylvania	4,282,891	3,521,951	2,136,655	2,146,236	3,695,062	587,829	4,197,016	85,535	148	8	184
Rhode Island	276,531	217,353	133,030	143,501	202,538	73,993	269,939	6,488	27	...	77
South Carolina	995,577	705,606	490,408	505,169	987,891	7,686	391,105	604,332	9	....	131
Tennessee	1,542,359	1,258,520	769,277	773,082	1,525,657	16,702	1,138,831	403,151	25	....	352
Texas	1,591,749	818,579	837,840	753,909	1,477,133	114,616	1,197,237	393,384	136	....	992
Vermont	332,285	330,551	166,887	165,399	291,327	40,959	331,218	1,057	.....	....	11
Virginia	1,512,565	1,225,163	745,589	766,976	1,497,869	14,696	880,858	631,616	6	....	85
West Virginia	618,457	442,014	314,495	303,962	600,192	18,265	592,537	25,886	5	....	29
Wisconsin	1,315,497	1,054,670	680,069	635,428	910,072	405,425	1,309,618	2,702	16	....	3,161
The Territories	784,443	402,866	443,201	341,242	604,284	180,159	688.491	62,421	11,683	7	21,841
Arizona	40,440	9,658	28,202	12,238	24,391	16,049	35,160	155	1,630	2	3,493
Dakota	135,177	14,181	82,296	52,881	83,382	51,795	133,147	401	238	....	1,391
District of Columbia	177.624	131,700	83,578	94.046	160,502	17,122	118,006	59,596	13	4	5
Idaho	32,610	14,999	21,818	10,792	22,636	9,974	29,013	53	3,379	....	105
Montana	39,159	20,595	28,177	10,982	27,638	11,521	35,385	346	1,765	....	1,663
New Mexico	119,565	91,874	64,496	55,069	111,514	8,051	108,721	1,015	57	....	9,772
Utah	143,963	86,786	74,509	69,454	99,969	43,994	142,423	232	501	....	807
Washington	75,116	23,955	45,973	29,143	59,313	15,803	67,199	325	3,186	1	4,405
Wyoming	20,789	9,118	14,152	6,637	14,939	5,850	19,137	298	914	....	140

POPULATION OF THE 100 PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES, IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER.—CENSUS OF 1880.

Cities.	State.	Total Popula'n. 1880.	Total Popula'n. 1870.	1880. Male.	1880. Female.	1880. Native.	1880. Foreign.
Albany	N. Y.	90,758	69,422	43,770	46,988	66,993	23,765
Allegheny	Pa.	78,682	53,180	38,489	40,193	59,445	19,437
Atlanta	Ga.	37,409	21,789	17,677	19 732	35,993	1,416
Auburn	N. Y.	21,924	17,225	10,940	10,984	16,981	4,943
Augusta	Ga.	21,891	15,389	9,827	12,064	20,693	1,198
Baltimore	Md.	332,313	267,354	157,393	174,920	276,177	56,136
Bay City	Mich.	20,693	7,064	11,318	9,375	11,389	9,304
Boston	Mass.	362,839	250,526	172,268	190,571	248,043	114,796
Bridgeport	Conn.	27,643	18,969	13,421	14,222	0,204	7,438
Brooklyn	N. Y.	566,663	396,099	272,218	294,415	388,969	177,694
Buffalo	N. Y.	155,134	117,714	76,904	78,230	103,866	51,268
Cambridge	Mass.	52,669	39 634	25,024	27,645	37,001	15,668
Camden	N. J.	41,659	20,045	19,923	21,736	37,164	4 495
Charleston	S. C.	49,984	48,956	22,585	27,399	46,034	3,950
Chelsea	Mass.	21,782	18,547	10,02	11,759	17,187	4,595
Chicago	Ill.	503,185	298,977	256,905	246,280	298,326	204,859
Cincinnati	Ohio.	255,139	216,239	125,492	129,647	183,480	71,659
Cleveland	Oh o.	160,146	92,829	80,174	79,972	100,737	59,409
Columbus	Ohio.	51,647	31,274	26,400	25,238	42,576	9,071
Covington	Ky.	29,720	24,505	14,192	15,528	23,233	6 487
Davenport	Iowa.	21,831	20,038	10,604	11,227	14,936	6,895
Dayton	Ohio.	38,678	30,473	18,969	19,709	31,432	7,246
Denver	Colo.	35,629	4,759	21,539	14,090	26,924	8,705
Des Moines	Iowa.	22,408	12,035	11,531	10,877	18,205	4,203
Detroit	Mich.	116,340	79,577	56 763	59,577	70,695	45,645
Dubuque	Iowa.	22,251	18,434	10,855	11,399	16,107	6,147
Elizabeth	N. J.	28,229	20,832	13,608	14,021	20,644	7,585
Elmira	N. Y.	20,541	15,863	9,749	10,792	16,967	3,574
Erie	Pa.	27,737	19,646	13,752	13,985	20,031	7,706
Evansville	Ind.	29,280	21,830	14,228	15,052	23,177	6,103
Fall River	Mass.	48,961	26,766	23,163	25,798	25,380	23,575
Fort Wayne	Ind.	26,880	17 718	13,717	13,163	21 028	5,852
Galveston	Tex s.	22,248	13,813	11,066	11,182	17,202	5,046
Grand Rapids	Mich.	32,016	16,507	16,183	15,833	22,016	1 ,000
Harrisburg	Pa.	30,762	23,104	14,760	16,002	28,446	2,316
Hartford	Conn.	42,015	37,180	20,146	21,869	31,420	10,595
Hoboken	N. J.	30,999	20,297	15,254	15,745	18,004	12,995
Holyoke	Mass.	21,915	17,733	10,308	11,607	10,915	10,915
Indianapolis	Ind.	75 056	48,244	36 803	38,193	62,446	12,610
Jersey City	N. J.	120,722	82,546	59,919	60,803	81,464	39,258
Kansas City	Mo.	55,785	32,260	31,999	23,786	46,484	9,301
Lancaster	Pa.	25,769	20,233	12,212	13,557	22,390	3,379
Lawrence	Mass.	39,151	28,921	17,783	21,366	21,885	17,266
Louisville	Ky.	123,758	100,753	58,982	64,776	100,602	23,156
Lowell	Mass.	59,475	40,928	28,853	32,622	36,421	23,054
Lynn	Mass.	38,274	28,233	18,243	20,031	31,234	7,040
Manchester	N. H.	32,630	23,536	14,698	17,932	20,151	12,479
Memphis	Tenn.	33,592	40,226	16,302	17,290	29,621	3,971
Milwaukee	Wis.	115,586	71,440	57,475	58,112	69,514	46,073
Minneapolis	Minn.	46,887	13,066	25,291	21,596	31,874	15,013
Mobile	Ala.	29,132	32,034	13,189	15,943	26,195	2,937
Nashville	Tenn.	43,350	25,865	20,912	22,438	40,325	3,025
Newark	N. J.	136,508	105,059	66,077	70,431	96,178	40,330
New Bedford	Mass.	26,845	21,320	12,371	14,474	20,922	5,923
New Haven	Conn.	62,882	50,840	30,462	32,420	47,214	15,668
New Orleans	La.	216,090	191,418	100,892	115,198	174,933	41,157
Newport	Ky.	20,433	15,087	9,925	10,508	15,422	5,011
New York	N. Y.	1,206,299	942,292	590,514	615,785	727,029	478,670
Norfolk	Va.	21,966	19,229	10,069	11,897	21,131	835
Oakland	Cal.	34,555	10,50	18,117	16,438	23,534	11,021
Omaha	Neb.	30,518	16,083	17,104	13,414	20,588	9,930
Oswego	N. Y.	21,116	20,910	10,055	11, 61	15,555	5,561
Paterson	N. J.	51,031	33,579	24,765	26,266	32,329	18,702
Peoria	Ill.	29.259	22,849	14,567	14,692	22,134	7,125
Petersburg	Va.	21,656	18,950	9,779	11,877	21,300	356
Philadelphia	Pa.	847,170	674,022	405,975	441,195	642,835	204,335
Pittsburgh	Pa.	156,389	86,076	78,471	77,918	111,784	44,605
Portland	Me.	33,810	31,413	15,752	18,058	26,908	6,902
Poughkeepsie	N. Y.	20,207	20,080	9 270	10,937	16,413	3,794
Providence	R. I.	104,857	68,904	49,787	55,070	76,782	28,075
Quincy	Ill.	27,268	24,052	13,289	13,979	20,706	6,562
Reading	Pa.	43,278	33,930	21,099	22,179	39,654	3,624
Richmond	Va.	63,600	51,038	29,483	34,117	60,260	3,340
Rochester	N. Y.	89,366	62,386	42,388	46,978	62,744	26,622
Sacramento	Cal.	21,420	16,283	12,271	9,149	14,372	7,048
St. Joseph	Mo.	32,431	19,565	17,832	14,599	26,775	5,656
St. Louis	Mo.	350 518	310,864	179,520	170,998	245 505	105,013
St. Paul	Minn.	41,473	20,030	22,361	19 112	26,398	15,075
Salem	Mass.	27,563	24,117	12,589	14,974	20,115	7,448
Salt Lake City	Utah.	20 768	12,854	9,953	10,815	13,095	7,673
San Antonio	Texas.	20 550	12,256	10,673	9,877	14,952	5,598
San Francisco	Cal.	233,959	149 473	132,608	101,351	129,715	104,244
Savannah	Ga.	30,709	28,235	13,936	16,773	27,715	2,994
Scranton	Pa.	45,850	35 092	23,170	22,680	29,993	15,857
Somerville	Mass.	24,933	14,685	11,873	13,060	19,252	5,681
Springfield	Ill.	19,713	17,364	9,805	9 938	15,459	4,284
Springfield	Mass.	33 340	26,703	15,767	17,573	25,807	7,533
Springfield	Ohio.	20 730	12,652	10,563	10,167	17,646	3,084
Syracuse	N. Y.	51,792	43 051	24,675	27,117	38,774	13,018
Taunton	Mass.	21,213	18,629	10,328	10,885	16,084	5,129
Terre Haute	Ind.	26,042	16,103	13,128	12,914	22,050	3 992
Toledo	Ohio.	50,137	31,584	25 034	25,103	35,788	14,349
Trenton	N. J.	29 910	22 874	14,921	14,989	24,191	5,719
Troy	N. Y.	56,747	46 465	27,154	29 593	39,809	16 938
Utica	N. Y.	33,914	28,804	16,666	18,248	24 581	9,333
Washington	D. C.	147,293	109 199	68,310	78 983	133,051	14 242
Wheeling	W. Va.	30,737	19,280	15,127	15,610	24,623	6,114
Wilkesbarre	Pa.	23,339	10, 74	11 451	11,888	17,039	6,300
Wilmington	Del.	42,478	30 84	20 751	21,727	36 804	5,674
Worcester	Mass.	58 291	41,105	28,927	29 364	42,667	15,624

POPULATION OF THE CITIES OF THE WORLD HAVING OVER 100,000 INHABITANTS.

Aberdeen, Scotland	105,818	Chang-Choo-Foo, China	1,000,000	Lisbon, Portugal	240,000	Pesth, Hungary	131,735
Adrianople, Turkey	100,000	Chicago, Ill	503,185	Liverpool, England	640,000	Philadelphia, Pa	847,170
Agra, India	125,000	Cincinnati, Ohio	255,139	London, England	3,814,571	Pittsburgh, Pa	156,389
Ahmedabad, India	120 000	Cologne, Prussia	150,000	Louisville, Ky	123,758	Portsmouth, England	120,000
Alexandria, Egypt	180,000	Cleveland, Ohio	160,146	Lucknow, India	325,000	Prague, Bohemia	150,000
Amoy, China	270,000	Constantinople, Turkey	1,000,000	Lyons, France	329,000	Providence, R. I	104,857
Amsterdam, Holland	263.204	Copenhagen, Denmark	200,000	Madras, India	415,000	Riga, Russia	102,000
Antwerp, Belgium	104,628	Damascus, Turkey	180,000	Madrid, Spain	490,000	Rio Janeiro, Brazil	370,000
Bahia, Brazil	180,000	Delhi, India	189,000	Manchester, England	380,000	Rome, Italy	303.000
Baltimore, Md	332,313	Dhar, India	105.000	Manilla, Philippine Is	155,000	Rotterdam, Holland	140,000
Batavia, Java	140,000	Dresden, Germany	150,000	Marseilles, France	315,200	Rouen, France	110,000
Bangkok, Siam	300,000	Dublin, Ireland	330,500	Maranhao, Brazil	100,000	Saigon, Cochin, China	200,000
Barcelona, Spain	202,165	Detroit, Mich	116,340	Melbourne, Australia	247,679	St. Louis, Mo	350,518
Baroda, India	110,000	Dundee, Scotland	125,000	Mexico, Mexico	212 000	St. Petersburg, Russia	668,000
Belfast, Ireland	180,000	Edinburgh, Scotland	184,000	Miako, Japan	400,000	San Francisco, Cal	233.959
Benares, India	600,000	Florence, Italy	150,000	Milan, Italy	200 000	Santiago, Chili	100,000
Berlin, Prussia	1,207,000	Foo Choo Foo, China	1,000,000	Milwaukee, Wis	115,586	Seville, Spain	160,000
Bhurtpoor, India	100,000	Fyzabad, India	100,000	Montreal, Canada	115,000	Shang-hai, China	160,000
Birmingham, England	360,000	Genoa, Italy	150,000	Moscow, Russia	378 000	Sheffield, England	237.000
Bombay, India	898,218	Ghent, Belgium	130.000	Munich, Bavaria	175,500	Smyrna, Asia Minor	150,000
Bordeaux, France	215,000	Glasgow, Scotland	525,000	Nagpoor, India	115,000	Stockholm, Sweden	169,429
Boston, Mass	362,839	Greenwich, England	135,000	Nanking, China	500,000	Sydney, Australia	187,381
Bradford, England	160,000	Hamburg, Germany	245,000	Nantes, France	115,000	Tiflis, Russia in Asia	104,024
Breslau, Prussia	187,650	Hang Tcheou, China	1,000,000	Naples, Italy	467,500	Tokio, Japan	594,283
Bristol, England	180,000	Havana, Cuba	225,000	Newark, N. J	136,508	Toulouse, France	130,423
Brooklyn, N. Y	566,663	Hue, or Hucfo, Anam	132,000	Newcastle-on-Tyne, Eng	150,000	Trieste, Austria	100,000
Brussels, Belgium	325,000	Hull, England	120,000	New Orleans, La	216 090	Tunis, Africa	150,000
Bucharest, Turkey	150,000	Hyderabad, India	200,000	New York, N. Y	1,206 299	Turin, Italy	200,000
Buenos Ayres, S. A	150.000	Joodpoor Marwar, India	100,000	Ningpo, China	2 0.000	Valencia, Spain	100,000
Buffalo, N. Y	155,134	Jersey City, N. J	120,722	Odessa, Russia	120,000	Venice, Italy	115,000
Cairo, Egypt	300,000	Leeds, England	354,000	Palermo, Italy	175,000	Vienna, Austria	726,105
Calcutta, India	600, 00	Liege, Belgium	120,000	Paris, France	2,225,000	Warsaw, Poland	237,560
Canton, China	800,000	Lille, or Lisle, France	150,000	Patna, India	300,000	Washington, D. C	147,293
Cawnpore, India	100,000	Lima, Peru	100,000	Pekin, China	1,850,000	Yeddo, Japan	2,100,000

EDUCATIONAL AND RELIGIOUS.

Tables showing, according to report of 1878, the salaries of teachers, expenditures, school ages, school population, enrollment, attendance, etc., of public schools, colleges and universities; also, giving value of buildings, grounds, apparatus, etc., of those owning such:

	PUBLIC SCHOOLS.							COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WITH THE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.						
STATES AND TERRITORIES.	SCH'L AGE.	SCHOOL POPULATION.	NO. ENROLLED.	AV. DAILY ATTENDANCE.	AV. DAYS IN YEAR	SALARIES OF TEACHERS.	TOTAL EXPENDITURES.	No. Colleges	INSTRUCTORS.	STUDENTS	VOLUMES IN LIBRARIES.	VALUE OF BUILD'GS, GROUNDS & APPAR'S	INCOME FROM FUNDS.	INCOME FROM TUITION.
Alabama	7-21	370,245	159,659	98,534	85	$ 350,633	$ 358,697	4	55	517	12,400	$ 505,000	$ 24,000	$ 2,000
Arizona	6-21	3,089	2,740	890	124	14,947	21,396	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	6-21	216,475	33,747	.....	.....	121,397	132,620	5	22	333	1,165	42,000	1,900	5,100
California	5-17	205,485	154,069	94,696	144	2,272,557	3,155,815	12	198	2,246	43,610	1,428,000	116,055	103,400
Colorado	6-21	26,473	10,641	9,699	91	153,089	243,050	2	10	117	2,000	130,000	15,000	.....
Connecticut	4-16	138,407	119,828	75,565	178	1,041,041	1,566,477	3	120	k. 942	136,275	472,884	42,709	93,221
Dakota	5-21	12,201	7,156	1,342	.....	30,489	57,793	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Delaware	5-21	35,649	26,730	.....	157	125,859	216,540	1	10	106	6,500	75,000	4,980	540
District of Columbia	6-17	38,800	22,842	18,133	187	237,189	373,606	4	47	452	45,000	770,000	8,500	8,000
Florida	4-21	72,985	36,964	23,933	.....	85,361	130,880	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	6-18	433,444	209,872	130,605	a. 90	.....	412,453	6	50	662	32,213	610,000	43,300	20,900
Idaho	5-18	4,942	.....	.....	.....	23,082	23,082	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	6-21	1,002,421	706,723	b. 420.031	.....	4,445,657	7,526,109	28	272	5,016	110,893	2,498,020	128,766	75,680
Indian	.....	49,213	12,222	c. 4,142	.....	.....	373,666	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	6-21	699,153	512,535	315,893	129	3,065,968	4,651,911	16	193	2,868	58,872	1,185,000	47,700	18,043
Iowa	5-21	575,474	428,362	256,913	146	f.3,011,230	4,602,538	19	173	3,152	48,510	1,197,000	53,700	41,380
Kansas	5-21	266,575	177,866	106,903	113	980,435	1,541,417	8	73	931	20,300	499,000	4,713	7,123
Kentucky	b.6-20	b. 572,808	b. 248,000	b. 160,000	b. 110	g.1,000,000	g.1,130,000	13	94	1,647	36,719	642,500	25,470	37,413
Louisiana	6-21	274,406	83,047	b. 54,390	80	426,839	558,231	7	39	560	22,500	170,000	19,488	4,677
Maine	4-21	214,797	155,150	108,940	118	830,670	1,050,709	3	35	k. 422	39,900	730,000	26,050	16,576
Maryland	5-20	276,120	156,274	81,529	182	1,122,414	1,593,260	8	73	1,341	39,100	380,500	181,734	9,902
Massachusetts	5-15	297,202	310,181	228,447	176	h. 871,851	5,166,988	7	130	2,081	267,990	1,250,000	304,107	213,850
Michigan	5-20	476,806	359,702	b. 210,000	150	f.1,920,239	3,116,579	7	123	2,040	50,240	1,068,450	79,958	20,089
Minnesota	5-21	271,428	167,825	.....	85	878,980	1,494,685	5	58	685	19,604	296,870	49,081	5,139
Mississippi	5-21	346,613	205,978	115,976	79	585,393	592,805	5	36	683	9,600	421,000	3,960	3,200
Missouri	6-20	688,248	448,033	a. 182,000	99	2,320,430	2,406,133	17	196	2,436	84,425	1,149,500	155,125	51,555
Montana	4-21	5,315	3,277	.....	88	.....	65,505	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	5-21	104,030	62,785	.....	102	444,500	750,520	3	33	319	3,700	218,000	.....	5,900
Nevada	6-18	9,922	7,612	4,666	.....	106,301	204,137	1	2	l. 30	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	4-21	73,785	66,023	48,412	.....	410,258	636,655	1	20	k. 315	54,835	100,000	25,000	21,400
New Jersey	5-18	322,166	202,634	113,604	194	1,528,986	2,004,048	4	63	702	53,200	1,220,000	81,003	23,765
New Mexico	d.7-18	d. 29,312	d. 5,151	.....	d. 132	i. 15,432	i. 18,890	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	5-21	1,615,256	1,032,052	577,606	179	7,756,844	10,755,730	26	451	5,188	229,841	6,353,653	477,942	341,775
North Carolina	6-21	422,380	228,092	132,553	46	292,893	324,287	7	47	1,081	28,000	481,000	10,500	18,700
Ohio	6-21	1,027,248	740,194	495,372	175	4,956,514	7,995,125	34	346	6,390	249,821	2,973,336	177,101	53,786
Oregon	4-20	53,402	26,902	21,401	94	194,571	275,106	7	42	989	8,120	277,000	15,600	11,238
Pennsylvania	6-21	1,200,000	936,780	603,825	145	4,755,620	8,187,977	27	315	3,844	165,596	4,479,500	181,439	130,349
Rhode Island	5-15	53,316	45,629	28,756	182	427,445	679,770	1	16	k. 243	51,000	.....	38,070	28,032
South Carolina	6-16	228,128	116,239	.....	91	291,268	319,030	7	44	782	21,780	220,000	31,116	6,200
Tennessee	6-18	448,917	261,151	172,198	77	692,198	794,232	21	163	3,306	48,837	1,247,500	75,890	28,954
Texas	8-14	194,353	146,946	.....	.....	656,977	747,534	11	80	1,984	14,460	409,000	1,900	38,550
Utah	6-16	33,604	21,710	14,940	137	84,230	113,193	1	6	136	2,717	.....	.....	3,070
Vermont	5-20	92,831	73,081	48,638	124	407,835	511,101	3	15	k. 192	33,865	368,000	13,010	7,576
Virginia	5-21	483,701	202,244	116,404	107	714,651	963,895	8	73	1,105	79,5 0	1,605,000	21,858	26,062
Washington	b.4-21	b. 12,997	b. 5,385	.....	b. 130	.....	.....	2	15	241	1,143	100,000	500	2,000
West Virginia	6-21	209,532	130,184	86,768	96	301,705	687,275	4	28	382	9,290	455,000	9,800	5,396
Wisconsin	4-20	478,692	297,502	.....	a. 161	1,601,252	2,117,535	8	110	1,512	44,331	813,500	52,292	64,639
Wyoming	d.7-21	.....	e. 1,690	.....	.....	j. 16,400	j. 16,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	.....	14,608,406	9,375,440	4,265,742	.....	$51,780,630	$80,567,784	358	3,885	57,977	2,187,932	$36,871,21[illegible]	$2,548,324	$1,555,484

a. In the counties. b. Report of 1877. c. Report of 1875. d. Report of 1876. e. Not including average attendance in five civilized tribes. f. Salaries of superintendents included. g In 1877. h. Partial Report. i. In 1875. j. In 1877. k. No preparatory schools included. l. In preparatory school. Massachusetts is accredited in this report with but one preparatory school.

Table showing, according to census of 1870, the number of organizations, members, edifices, sittings, and the value of church property of the several denominations in the United States; also their theological seminaries, according to report for 1878:

DENOMINATIONS.	Church Organizations.	Church Edifices.	Church Sittings.	Church Property.	Theol'g'l Sem'ns.	Theol'g'l Prof'rs.	Theol'g'l Stud'ts.
Baptist (Regular)	14,474	12,857	3,997,116	$ 39,229,221	10	65	805
Baptist (Others)	1,355	1,105	363,019	2,378,977	*2	*10	*41
Christian	3,578	2,822	865,602	6,425,137	3	7	78
Congregational	2,887	2,715	1,117,212	25,669,698	10	74	359
Episcopal (Protestant)	2,835	2,601	991,051	36,514,549	16	68	268
Evangelical Association	815	641	193,796	2,301,650	.....	.....	.....
Friends	692	662	224,664	3,939,560	.....	.....	.....
Jewish	189	152	73,265	5,155,234	.....	.....	.....
Lutheran	3,032	2,776	977,332	14,917,747	13	38	265
Methodist	25,278	21,337	6,528,209	69,854,121	11	63	480
Moravian (Unitas Fratrum)	72	67	25,700	709,100	1	4	28
New Jerusalem (Swedenborgian)	90	61	18,755	869,700	.....	.....	.....
Presbyterian (Regular)	6,262	5,683	2,198,900	47,828,732	15	79	652
Presbyterian (Other)	1,562	1,388	499,344	5,436,524	5	15	69
Reformed Church in America (once Dutch Reformed)	471	468	227,228	10,359,255	2	5	32
Reformed Church in the U. S. (once German Reformed)	1,256	1,145	431,700	5,775,215	3	9	58
Roman Catholic	4,127	3,806	1,990,514	60,985,566	17	91	932
Second Advent	225	140	34,555	306,240	.....	.....	.....
Shaker	18	18	8,850	86,900	.....	.....	.....
Spiritualist	95	22	6,970	100,150	.....	.....	.....
Unitarian	331	310	155,471	6,282,675	1	6	20
United Brethren in Christ	1,445	937	265,025	1,819,810	1	3	30
Universalist	719	602	210,884	5,692,325	2	10	49
Union, Unknowr and Miscellaneous	462	596	172,062	1,369,745	4	20	101

*Partial Report.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE.

Estimate of the values in U. S. money of account of the STANDARD COINS of other Nations and proclaimed by the Secretary of the Treasury, Jan. 1, 1880.

COUNTRY.	MONETARY UNIT.	STANDARD.	Value in U. S. money.	STANDARD COIN.
Austria	Florin	Silver	$ .413	
Belgium	Franc	Gold and Silver	.193	5, 10 and 20 francs.
Bolivia	Boliviano	Silver	.836	Boliviano.
Brazil	Milreis of 1000 reis	Gold	.545	
British Possessions in N. A.	Dollar	Gold	1.00	
Central America	Peso	Silver	.836	Peso.
Chili	Peso	Gold	.912	Condor, doubloon & escudo.
Denmark	Crown	Gold	.268	10 and 20 crowns.
Ecuador	Peso	Silver	.836	Peso.
Egypt	Pound of 100 piasters	Gold	4.974	5, 10, 25 and 50 piasters.
France	Franc	Gold and Silver	.193	5, 10 and 20 francs.
Great Britain	Pound Sterling	Gold	4.866½	½ sovereign and sovereign.
Greece	Drachma	Gold and Silver	.193	5, 10, 20, 50 & 100 drachmas
German Empire	Mark	Gold	.238	5, 10 and 20 marks.
India	Rupee of 16 annas	Silver	.397	
Italy	Lira	Gold and Silver	.193	5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 lire.
Japan	Yen (Gold)	Gold and Silver	.997	1, 2, 5, 10 and 20 yen.
Liberia	Dollar	Gold	1.00	
Mexico	Dollar	Silver	.909	Peso or dollar, 5, 10, 25 and 50 centavo.
Netherlands	Florin	Gold and Silver	.402	
Norway	Crown	Gold	.268	10 and 20 crowns.
Peru	Sol	Silver	.836	Sol.
Portugal	Milreis of 1000 reis	Gold	1.08	2, 5 and 10 milreis.
Russia	Rouble of 100 copecks	Silver	.669	¼, ½ and 1 rouble.
Sandwich Islands	Dollar	Gold	1.00	
Spain	Peseta of 100 centimes	Gold and Silver	.193	5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 pesetas.
Sweden	Crown	Gold	.268	10 and 20 crowns.
Switzerland	Franc	Gold and Silver	.193	5, 10 and 20 francs.
Tripoli	Mahbub of 20 piasters	Silver	.748	
Turkey	Piaster	Gold	.044	25, 50, 100, 250 and 500 piasters.
United States of Colombia	Peso	Silver	.836	Pesn.

Pay Table of the Leading Civil Officers of the United States.

President of the United States, per annum, $50,000.
Vice-President of the United States, per annum, $10,000.
Cabinet Ministers, per annum, $10,000.
Chief Justice Supreme Court, per annum, $10,500.
Justices of the Supreme Court, per annum, $10,000.
Senators and Representatives in Congress, with mileage, per annum, $5,000.
Speaker House of Representatives, with mileage, per annum, $10,000.
Secretary of the Senate, per annum, $5,000.
Clerk House of Representatives, per annum, $5,000.
Assistant Secretaries of Departments, per annum, $6,000.
Heads of Bureaus, per annum, $4,000 to $5,000.
Superintendent Coast Survey, per annum, $5,000.
Judges District of Columbia, per annum, $3,000.
Secretary Smithsonian Institution, per annum, $4,000.
Ministers Plenipotentiary to Great Britain, France, Germany and Russia, per annum, $17,500.
Ministers Plenipotentiary to Spain, Austria, China, Italy, Mexico, Brazil and Japan, per annum, $12,000.
Ministers Resident and Plenipotentiary to Chili, Peru, Uruguay, Guatemala, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua and San Salvador, per annum, $10,000.
Ministers Resident to Portugal, Belgium, Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, Switzerland, Turkey, Hawaiian Islands, Hayti, Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, Argeatine Republic, Paraguay, Bolivia and Greece, per annum, $7,500.
Interpreter and Secretary of Legation to China, per annum, $5,000.
Dragoman and Secretary of Legation to Turkey, per annum, $3,000.
Consul-General to Cairo, per annum, $4,000.
Consul-General to London, Paris, Havana and Rio Janeiro, per annum, $6,000.
Consul-General to Calcutta and Shanghai, per annum, $5,000.
Consul-General to Melbourne, per annum, $4,500.
Consul-General to Kanagawa, Montreal and Berlin, per annum, $4,000.
Consul-General to Vienna, Frankfort, Rome and Constantinople, per annum, $3,000.
Consul-General to Turkey and Egypt, per annum, $3,500.
Consul-General to St. Petersburg and Mexico, per annum, $2,000.
Consul-General to Liverpool, per annum, $6,000.
Secretaries of Legation, from $1,500 to $2,625.
Consuls, from $1,000 to $7,000.

The Postmasters, Collectors of the Revenue, Territorial Governors and Judges, and other officers employed throughout the country, are too numerous to be designated in this place.

Pay Roll United States Army.

LINE.

	No.	Salary.
General	1	$13,500
Lieut.-General	1	11,000
Major-Generals	3	7,500
Brig'r-Generals	6	5,500

CAVALRY.

Colonels	10	$ 3,500
Lieut.-Colonels	10	3,000
Majors	30	2,500
Captains	120	2,000
Adjutants	10	1,800
Reg. Qrs	10	1,800
1st. Lieuts	120	1,600
2d Lieuts	120	1,500
Chaplains	2	1,500

ARTILLERY.

Colonels	5	$ 3,500
Lieut.-Colonels	5	3,000
Majors	15	2,500
Captains	60	2,000
Adjutants	5	1,800
Reg. Qrs	5	1,800
1st Lieuts	120	1,600
2d Lieuts	65	1,500

INFANTRY.

Colonels	25	$ 3,500
Lieut.-Colonels	25	3,000
Majors	25	2,500
Captains	250	1,800
Adjutants	25	1,800
Reg. Qrs	25	1,800
1st Lieuts	250	1,500
2d Lieuts	250	1,400
Chaplains	2	1,500

STAFF.

Aides-de-Camps, 29; 6 of them the pay of a Colonel, A.-de-C. to General of the army; 2 of them the pay of a Lieut.-Colonel, A.-de-C. to Lieut.-General; 8 of them $200 in addition to pay in line, A.-de-C. to Major-Generals; 13 of them $150 in addition to pay in line, A.-de-C. to Brigadier Generals.

United States Navy.—Active Service.

LINE—AT SEA.

	No.	Salary.
Admiral	1	$13,000
Vice Admiral	1	9,000
Rear Admirals	11	6,000
Commodores	25	5,000
Captains	50	4,500
Commanders	90	3,500
Lieut.-Commanders	80	2,800 to 3,000
Lieuts	280	2,400 to 2,600
Masters	100	1,800 to 2,000
Ensigns	100	1,200 to 1,400
Midshipmen	40	1,000
Cadet Midshipmen	334	500 to 950
Mates	42	900

STAFF.

Medical Directors	15	$2,800 to 4,400
Pay Directors	13	2,800 to 4,200
Chief Engineers	70	2,800 to 4,200
Surgeons	50	2,800 to 4,200
Paymasters	50	2,800 to 4,200
Passed or Asst. Surgeons	100	1,900 to 2,200
Passed Asst. Paymasters	30	2,000 to 2,200
Asst. Paymasters	20	1,700 to 1,900
Passed Asst. Engineers	100	2,000 to 2,200
Asts. Engineers	100	1,700 to 1,900
Chaplains	24	2,500 to 2,800
Naval Constructors	11	*3,200 to *4,200
Asst. Constructors	5	*2,000 to *2,600
Profs. of Mathematics	12	2,400 to 3,500
Civil Engineers	9	2,400 to 3,500
Cadet Engineers		500 to 1,000

Marine Corps.—Active Service.

	No.	Salary.
Colonel Commandant	1	$ 3,500
Colonel	1	3,500
Lieut.-Colonels	2	3,000
Major	1	2,500
Captains	18	1,800
1st Lieuts	30	1,500
2d Lieuts	20	1,400

STAFF.

Majors	3	$ 2,500
Captains	2	2,000

RETIRED LIST.—NAVY.

Brig'r-General	1
Lieut.-Colonel	1
Majors	3
Captains	4
1st Lieuts	2
2d Lieuts	3

Enlisted file of Marine Corps 1,500 men.

The enlisted persons in the United States Navy consist of 8,500 seamen, ordinary seamen, landsmen and boys.

* Shore duty.

The Different Departments of the Army.

	No.	Salary.
Brig'r Generals	8	$ 5,500
Colonels	12	3,300
Lieut. Colonels	33	3,000
Majors	150	2,500
Captains	127	2,000
1st Lieuts,	76	1,600

ENGINEER CORPS.

Brig'r-General	1	$ 5,500
Colonels	6	3,500
Lieut.-Colonels	12	3,000
Majors	24	2,500
Captains	30	1,800

SIGNAL OFFICE.

Colonels	1	$ 3,500
Lieutenants	2	1,500
Post Chaplains	30	1,500

RETIRED LIST.—ARMY.

Major Generals	5
Brig'r-Generals	18
Colonels	59
Lieut.-Colonels	34
Majors	50
Captains	131
1st. Lieuts	72
2d Lieuts	15
Chaplains	8
Professors	

METRIC AND STANDARD SYSTEM OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES,

WITH TABLES OF EQUIVALENTS.

"THE Metric System is the whole assemblage of measures derived from a fundamental standard called METER."

The metric system of weights and measures originated in France about 1790. In 1799 an international commission assembled at Paris on the invitation of the government to settle, from the results of the great Meridian Survey, the exact length of the "definitive meter." Representatives were present from France, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, Spain, Savoy and the Roman Republics. A committee from the Assembly of Sciences had spent several years of laborious determinations, upon which were to be the standard units of the new metrological system. As the result of the investigations of this international commission, a *ten millionth* part of the earth's quadrant was chosen, and called a meter.

To determine the unit of *weight* a cube of pure water at its greatest density, each edge of which is *one hundredth* of a meter, was taken and called a *gramme or gram.* The multiples and subdivisions were made to correspond to the decimal scale, hence its great simplicity.

Probably no influence had contributed, previous to the adoption of this system, more largely to embarrass trade among the different nations of the world, than the endless diversity of instrumentalities employed for the purpose of determining the *quantities* of exchangeable commodities. It is to this long-felt necessity for one common system of weights and measures throughout the world, that this system, after a lapse of but three-quarters of a century, has been adopted by nearly two-thirds of the inhabitants of the civilized and Christian world. In 1866 an act to authorize the metric system in the United States was passed by Congress. The utility of this system will commend itself even at a glance, and hence the importance of every person becoming acquainted with it.

All metric measures are uniformly multiplied and divided by *ten*, which causes the system to be also called *decimal system* of weights and measures.

The metric system comprises only five standard units, or six, including the units of moneys. The names, uses, and values of these units are:

The METER, which is the unit of length and the basis of all the other metric measures.

The ARE, which is the unit of land measure, and is the square of *ten* meters.

The LITER, which is the unit of measure of capacity (both liquid and dry), and is the cube of a *tenth* part of a meter.

The STERE, which is the unit of solid or cubic measure, and equal to one *cubic* meter.

The GRAM, which is the unit of measures of weights represented as previously stated by the weight in *vacuum* of *one-hundredth* part of the meter.

The FRANC, which is the unit of metric money, represented by a silver coin weighing five grains, and of which nine-tenths are fine metal.

Each unit has its decimal multiples and sub-multiples, i. e., weights and measures ten times larger or ten times smaller than the principal unit. These multiples and sub-multiples are indicated by seven prefixes placed before the several fundamental units. The following are the prefixes:

The multiples are taken from the Greek, the sub-multiples from the Latin.

MULTIPLES.	SUB-MULTIPLES.
1. *Deka*, which means TEN.	*Deci*, which means TENTH.
2. *Hecto*, " " *Hundred.*	*Centi*, " " *Hundredth.*
3. *Kilo*, " " *Thousand.*	*Milli*, " " *Thousandth.*
4. *Myria*,* " " *Ten Thous'd.*	

Thus with the meter we have

The Meter, - -	1 meter.	The Meter	1.
" Deckameter, or	10 "	" Decimeter, -	0.1
" Hectometer, "	100 "	" Centimeter, - -	0.01
" Kilometer, "	1000 "	" Millimeter, -	0.001

NOTE.—A similar series may be obtained with any other unit, such as the GRAM, *one Kilogram*, one thousand grains; the LITER, *one Hectoliter*, one hundred liters. The unit of money the *Franc*, admits no multiplying prefixes. Its divisions are termed *Decime*, Centime, Millime, instead of Decifranc, Centifranc, Millifranc, although Decime and Millime are seldom used.

The formation of the tables can be seen at a glance by the following:

RELATIVE VALUE.	LENGTH.	SURFACE.	CAPACITY.	SOLIDITY.	WEIGHT.
10,000	Kyriameter*.				
1,000	Milometer.	Kilare.*	Kiloliter.	Kilostere.*	Kilogram.
100.	Hectometer.	Hectare.	Hectoliter.	Hectostere.*	Hectogram.
10.	Decameter.	Decare.*	Dekaliter.	Decastere.	Decagram.
UNIT.	METER.	ARE.	LITER.	STERRE.	GRAM.
.1	Decimeter.	Deciare.	Deciliter.	Decistere.	Decigram.
.01	Centimeter.	Centiare.	Centiliter.	Centistere.*	Centigram.
.001	Millimeter.	Milliare.*	Milliliter.	Millistere.*	Milligram.

* Are not in use.

NAMES.	PRONUNCIATION.	ABR.
Millimeter	Mill'-e-mee'-ter	*mm.*
Centimeter	Sent'-e-mee'-ter	*cm.*
Decimeter	Des'-e-mee'-ter	*dm.*
Meter	Mee'-ter	*m.*
Decameter	Dek'-a-mee'-ter	*dkm.*
Hectometer	Hec'-to-mee'-ter	*hm.*
Kilometer	Kill'-o-mee'-ter	*km*
Myriameter	Mir'-e-a-mee'-ter	*mym.*
Milliare	Mill'-e-âre	*ma.*
Centiare	Sent'-e-âre	*ca.*
Deciare	Des'-e-âre	*da.*
*Are**	Are	*a.*
Decare	Dek'-âre	*dka.*
Hectare	Hec'-târe	*ha.*
Kilare	Kill'-âre	*ka.*
Myriare	Mir'-e-âre	*mya.*
Millistere	Mill'-e-steer	*ms.*
Centistere	Sent'-e-steer	*cs.*
Decistere	Des'-e-steer	*ds.*
Stere	Steer	*s.*
Decastere	Dek'-a-steer	*dks.*
Hectostere	Hec'-to-steer	*hs.*
Kilostere	Kill'-o-steer	*ks.*
Myriastere	Mir'-e-a-steer	*mys.*
Milliliter	Mill'-e-li'-ter	*ml.*
Centiliter	Sent'-e-li'-ter	*cl.*
Deciliter	Des'-e-li'-ter	*dl.*
Liter	Li'-ter	*l.*
Decaliter	Dek'-a-li'-ter	*dkl.*
Hectoliter	Hec'-to-li'-ter	*hl.*
Kiloliter	Kill'-o-li'-ter	*kl.*
Myrialiter	Mir'-e-a-li'-ter	*myl.*
Milligram	Mill'-e-gram	*mg.*
Centigram	Sent'-e-gram	*cg.*
Decigram	Des'-e-gram	*dg.*
Gram	Gram	*g.*
Decagram	Dek'-a-gram	*dkg.*
Hectogram	Hec'-to-gram	*hg.*
Kilogram	Kill'-o-gram	*kg.*
Myriagram	Mir'-e-a-gram	*myg.*
Quintal	Quin'-tal	*q.*
Tonneau	Tun'-no	*T.*

* The *a* in *deca* and *myria*, and the *o in hecto* and *kilo* are dropped when prefixed to *Are*.

Tables of Standard English Measures and Weights, and the Metric System.

LONG MEASURE.

3 lines or 3 barleycorns make 1 inch.
3 feet make 1 yard.
5½ yards make 1 rod or pole.
40 rods make 1 furlong.
8 furlongs 1 mile.

CLOTH MEASURE.*

2 sixteenths = 1 eighth.
2 eighths = 1 quarter.
2 quarters = 1 half.
4 quarters = 1 yard.

OTHER MEASURES.

3 inches make 1 palm.
4 " " 1 hand.
6 " " 1 span.
18 " " 1 cubit.
21.8 " " 1 Bible cubit.
2½ feet make 1 military pace.
3 " " 1 common pace.
3.28 " " 1 meter.
6 " " 1 fathom.
880 fathoms make 1 mile.

1 knot or geographical mile is $\frac{1}{60}$ of a degree.
3 knots make 1 marine league.
60 " "
69½ statute miles } 1 degree.
99 1-12 miles }
$\frac{1}{48}$ part of an inch, a hair's breadth.
A ships cable is a chain usually about 120 fathoms or 720 feet long.

* The old system of measuring cloth by nails and ells is not now used in this country.
One minim equals one drop.

SCALE OF COMPARISON.

mi.		fur.		rod.		yd.		ft.		in.
1	=	8	=	320	=	1760	=	5280	=	63360
			=	40	=	220	=	660	=	7920
				1	=	5½	=	16½	=	198
						1	=	3	=	36
								1	=	12

TABLE OF EQUIVALENTS AS BETWEEN METRIC AND STANDARD MEASURES.

1 in. = 25½ m. m. (nearly).
1 ft. = 305 " " "
1 yd. = 914 " "
1 rd. = 5,029 " "

1 mi. = 1609.35 m.
1 cm. = .3937 = ⅜ in. (nearly).
1 m. = 39.37 in. = 1.093 yd.
1 km. = .62137 mi. = 198 rds. 13 ft. 10 in.

SQUARE MEASURE.

1 sq. in. = 6.5 sq. cm.
1 sq. ft. = 9.3 sq. dm.
1 sq. yd. = .835 sq. m.
1 acre = 40.47 a.

1 sq. cm. = .155 sq. in.
1 sq. m. = 1550 sq. in. / 10.76 sq. ft.
1 are. = 119.6 sq. yd.
1 ha. = 2.471 acres.

CUBIC SOLID MEASURE.

1 cu. in = 16.387 cu. centm.
1 cu. ft. = 28.34 liters. / .0283 steres.
1 cu. yd. = .76531 steres.
1 cord = 3.6281 steres.
1 fluid oz. = .02958 liters.
1 gal. = 3.786 liters.
1 bus. = 35.24 liters.

1 liter = 1.0567 qt. liq. meas. / .908 qt. dry meas.
1 hecto-liter = 2.837 bu. dry meas. / 26.417 gal. liq. meas.
1 kiloliter = 35.316 cu. ft. / 1.308 cu. yd.
1 cu. meter = 264.17 gal. liq. meas. / .2759 cord.
1 stere

WEIGHT.

1 oz. troy = 31.1 grams.
1 lb. troy = 373.2 "
1 lb. apoth. = 373.2 "
1 oz. avoir. = 28.35 "
1 lb. avoir. = 453.6 "

1 ton avoir. = 907.2 kilos.
1 gram. = 15.432 gr. troy. / .5643 dr. avoir.
1 kilogram = 2.2046 lb. avoir.
1 tonneau = 2204.6 lb. avoir.

ANGULAR MEASURE.

1 r. a. = 100 grades.
1° = 1⅛ grades.
1' = 1.85 minutes (cen.).
1" = 3.08 seconds (cen.).

1 cir. = 400 grades.
1 grade = 9 deg.
1' cen. = 5.4'.
1" cen. = 3.24".

DRY MEASURE.

2 pints (pt.)
8 quarts
4 pecks
36 bushels

1 quart, qt.
1 peck, pk.
1 bushel, bu.
1 chaldron, cald.

SCALE OF COMPARISON.

cald.		bu.		pks.		qts.		pts.
1	=	36	=	144	=	1152	=	2304
		1	=	4	=	32	=	64
				1	=	8	=	16
						1	=	2

NOTE.—The standard bushel is the Winchester, which contains 2150.42 cubic inches, or 77.627 lbs. avoirdupois of distilled water at its maximum density.

Its dimensions are 18½ inches diameter inside, 19½ inches outside, and 8 inches deep.

LIQUID OR WINE MEASURE.

4 gills make 1 pint, pt.
2 pints " 1 quart, qt.
4 quarts " 1 gallon, gal.

31½ gallons make 1 barrel, bbl.
2 barrels } " 1 hogshead, hh.
63 gallons }

SURVEYORS' MEASURE.

25 links make 1 rod.
4 rods " 1 chain.
80 ch. " 1 mile.

SURVEYORS' SQUARE MEASURE.

625 sq. links make 1 sq. rod, sq rd.
16 sq. rods " 1 sq. chain, sq. ch.
10 sq. ch. " 1 acre, A.
640 A. " 1 sq. mile, sq. mi.
36 sq. miles (six mile sq.) make 1 township, Tp.

SQUARE MEASURE.

144 sq. in. make 1 square foot.
9 sq. ft. " 1 square yard.
30¼ sq. yds. " 1 square rod.

40 sq. rds. make 1 rood, or qr. acre.
4 R. " 1 acre.
640 A. " 1 sq. mile or section.

Scale of Comparison.

A.		R.		rds.		sq. yds.		sq. ft.		sq. in.
1	=	4	=	160	=	4840	=	43560	=	6272640
		1	=	40	=	1210	=	10890	=	1568160
				1	=	30¼	=	272¼	=	39204
						1	=	9	=	1296
								1	=	144

Cubic or Solid Measure.

1728 cu. in.	make 1 cubic foot.
27 cu. ft.	" 1 cubic yard.
40 cu. ft. of round timber or 50 cu. ft. of hewn timber	" 1 ton or load.
8 cu. ft.	" 1 cord foot.
16 cd. ft. or 128 cu. ft.	" 1 cord of wood.
24¾ cu. ft.	" 1 perch of stone, or masonry.

Weights.

Troy Weights.

24 grains (gr.)	make 1 pennyweight,	pwt.
20 pwt.	" 1 ounce,	oz.
12 oz.	" 1 pound,	lb.
3⅛ grains	" 1 carat (diamond wt.),	k.

Scale of Comparison.

lb.		oz.		dwt.		gr.
1	=	12	=	240	=	5760
		1	=	20	=	480
				1	=	24
				1k.	=	3⅛

Apothecaries' Weight.

20 grains (gr.)	make 1 scruple,	sc. or ℈
3 scruples	" 1 dram,	dr. or ʒ
8 drams	" 1 ounce,	oz. or ℥
12 ounces	" 1 pound,	lb. or ℔

Scale of Comparison.

lb.		oz.		dr.		sc.		gr.
1	=	12	=	96	=	288	=	5760
		1	=	8	=	24	=	480
				1	=	3	=	60
						1	=	20

Table of Miscellaneous Weight.

196 lbs.	make 1 barrel of flour.		
200 "	" 1 "		beef, pork or fish.
280 "	" 1 "		salt at N. Y. Salt Works.
32 "	" 1 bushel of oats.		
48 "	" 1 "		barley.
56 "	" 1 "		corn, rye or flax seed.
14 "	" 1 "		blue-grass-seed.
46 "	" 1 "		castor-beans.
44 "	" 1 "		hemp-seed.
60 "	" 1 "		wheat, beans, clover-seed, peas or potatoes.
45 "	" 1 "		timothy-seed.
57 "	" 1 "		onions.
28 "	" 1 "		apples or peaches dried.
50 "	" 1 "		salt.

A sack of wool is 22 stone, that is, 14 lbs. to the stone, 308 lbs.

A pack of wool is 17 stone 2 lbs.=240 lbs.—a pack load for a horse.

A truss of hay is, new, 60 lbs.; old, 50 lbs.; straw, 40 lbs. *A load of hay* is 36 trusses. *A bale of hay* is 300 lbs.

A firkin of butter was formerly 56 lbs., but is now generally put up in 50 or 100 lb. firkins.

A bale of cotton is 400 lbs., but it is put up in different States varying from 280 to 720 lbs. Sea Island cotton is put up in sacks of 300 lbs.

Avoirdupois Weight.

16 drams (dr.)	1 ounce,	oz.
16 oz.	1 pound,	lb.
25 lb.	1 quarter,	qr.
4 qr.	1 hundredweight,	cwt.
20 cwt.	1 ton,	T.
100 lb.	1 cental,	c.

Scale of Comparison.

T.		cwt.		qr.		lb.		oz.		dr.
1	=	20	=	80	=	2000	=	32000	=	512000
		1	=	4	=	100	=	4000	=	25600
				1	=	25	=	400	=	6400
						6	=	16	=	256
								1	=	16

United States money is a decimal currency.

Table.

10 mills (m.)	1 cent,	ct.		
10 cents	1 dime,	d.	100 mills.	
10 dimes	1 dollar,	$	1000 "	100 cents.
10 dollars	1 eagle,	E.	10000 "	1000 " 100 dimes.

1 eagle (gold) weighs 258 troy grains.
1 dollar (silver) " 412.5 "
1 cent (copper) " 168 "
23.2 grains of pure gold=$1.00.

NOTE.—The gold coins are the *double-eagle*, *eagle*, *half-eagle*, *quarter-eagle*, *three-dollar piece* and *dollar*.

Table of Comparison of the Measures of Capacity.

1 gallon or 4 qt.	wine measure contains	231	cubic inches.
½ pk. or 4 qt.	dry measure "	268⅘	"
1 gallon or 4 qt.	beer measure "	282	"
1 bushel	dry measure "	2150⅓	"

In England the following weights and measures are sometimes used:

Weight.

3	pounds	= 1 stone, butchers' meat.
7	pounds	= 1 clove.
2	cloves	= 1 stone common articles.
2	stone	= 1 tod of wool.
6½	tods	= 1 wey "
2	weys	= 1 sack "
12	sacks	= 1 last "
240	pounds	= 1 pack "

Cloth Measure.

2¼	inches	= 1 nail.
4	nails	= 1 quarter.
4	quarters	= 1 yard.
3	quarters	= 1 Flemish ell.
5	quarters	= 1 English ell.
6	quarters	= 1 French ell.
4 2/5	quarters	= 1 Scotch ell.

Dry Measure.

2	quarts	= 1 pottle.
2	bushels	= 1 strike.
2	strikes	= 1 coom.
2	cooms	= 1 quarter.
5	quarters	= 1 load.
3	bushels	= 1 sack.
36	bushels	= 1 chaldron.

Wine Measure.

18	U. S. gal.	= 1 runlet.
25	Eng. gal. or 42 U. S. Gal.	= 1 tierce.
2	tierces	= 1 puncheon.
52½	Eng. gal. or 63 U. S. gal.	= 1 hogshead.
2	hogsheads	= 1 pipe.
2	pipes	= 1 tun.
7½	Eng. gal.	= 1 firkin of beer.
4	firkins	= 1 barrel "

Table of Comparison of Weights, &c.

1 U. S. pound Troy	=5760 grs. Troy	1 English yard	=36 inches.
1 Eng. pound Troy	=5760 " "	1 French meter	=39.368+ inches.
1 pound Apoth.	=5760 " "	1 U. S. bushel	=2150.42+ cu. in.
1 U. S. pound Av.	=7000 " "	1 Eng. "	=2218.19+ "
1 Eng. pound Av.	=7000 " "	1 U. S. gallon	=231 "
144 pounds Av.	= 175 lb. Troy.	1 Eng. "	=277.26+ "
1 French gram	=15.433 grs. "	1 French liter	=61.533+ "
1 U. S. yard	=36 inches.	1 French are	=119.664 sq. yds.

French, English and United States Money

Reduced into United States, English and French money.

Francs.		Dollars.		Pounds Sterling.		Shillings.		Pence.
1	=	0.1930	=	0.03968	=	0.7936	=	9.523
5	=	0.9648	=	0.19840	=	3.968	=	47.62
5.1826	=	1.	=	0.2056	=	4.11	=	49.
25.913	=	5.	=	1.0280	=	20.56	=	247.
25.20	=	4.863	=	1.	=	20.00	=	240.
126.00	=	24.315	=	5.	=	100.00	=	1200.

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